A GENERAL HISTORY OF EUROPE

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AN AMERICAN GENERAL ADDRESSING HIS MEN JUST BEFORE GOING UNDER FIRE IN THE CHEMIN DES DAMES SECTOR

Painting by J. F. Bouchor, Official Painter to the French Armies

A GENERAL HISTORY OF EUROPE

FROM THE ORIGINS OF CIVILIZATION TO THE PRESENT TIME

BY

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PREFACE

In preparing this outline of the whole history of man from the earliest beginnings of civilization down to the present those topics have been chosen which have the greatest interest for us today—those which help us most in understanding our own time. Occasionally it has been necessary to include certain historical facts of no great importance in themselves merely to establish the sequence or because they are deemed matters of "common knowledge" which the student should know because they are often alluded to. Happily these latter cases are few.

The presentation of a satisfactory review of general history in a single volume becomes increasingly difficult. The older manuals gave scanty attention to anything preceding the Greeks and were well-nigh through their task when they reached the year 1870. But the long narrative of the past has been lengthened out at both ends. Recent discoveries of archæologists have altered fundamentally our conception of man's progress and made vivid and real the long, long ages during which civilization was slowly accumulating before it reached that high degree of refinement which we find among the ancient Egyptians. The so-called "prehistoric" period and the story of the ancient Orient are now full of absorbing interest and can no longer be dismissed in a few introductory pages.

On the other hand our own times have assumed a significance which they did not possess for us prior to the year 1914. The shock of finding the world at war and the multitude of perplexing problems which the war has revealed have led us to realize how ill-understood are the conditions in modern Europe and in the Orient. The story of the World War must therefore be told with some account of its causes and of the questions still awaiting adjustment. Furthermore, it is obviously no longer possible to leave out some account of the Far East in an outline of European

history, for the war clearly showed how close has become the relationship between all peoples of the earth and how delicate and pressing is the problem of international adjustment.

It is obvious that in order to make room for all this new and essential material it has been impossible to include all the events which have usually been found in a general history. The task of selection is a difficult one. It is fair to ask the reader who is disturbed by the omission of some familiar name or topic to consider what portion of the present narrative he would discard in favor of the incident he has in mind.

In the matter of perspective it will be noted that less than half of the book is devoted to the whole history of the Western world down to the sixteenth century. Nearly a quarter of the volume is assigned to the last fifty years. This corresponds to a growing demand that we should study the past in the interest of the present.

The illustrations have been chosen with especial care, and the legends furnish much information which could not have been added to the text without complicating the narrative. The questions at the ends of the chapters will serve as a review and assist the student in summarizing his knowledge. Questions which cannot be answered from the text have sometimes been added in the hope of stimulating the student to carry on a little investigation of his own and to make some application of what he has learned.

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GENERAL HISTORY OF EUROPE

BOOK I. THE ANCIENT WORLD

CHAPTER I

PREHISTORIC MAN

I. How Man has built up Civilization

1. Ignorance and Poverty of Earliest Man. How long man has existed on the earth no one knows. Those who have studied the matter most carefully in recent times make various guesses —some five hundred thousand years, some a million. In the beginning he must have lived without houses or clothes or any means of making a fire. He had to invent even language. There were no books or teachers to help him, and so he had to find out everything for himself. He wandered naked and houseless through the woods and over the plains, picking up a living by looking for wild fruit, seeds, berries, roots, and such animals as he might find dead or could succeed in striking down with a stone or stick. As a great English philosopher long ago remarked, the original life of man must have been "poor, nasty, brutish, and short."

We may imagine one of these naked, brutish forefathers of ours sitting in the shade and amusing himself by picking up a sharp stone and scraping the bark off a stick he had at hand with a view to killing a squirrel that was playing around. He might happen to sharpen the stick and so make a rude spear, which he discovered could be used to *pierce* an animal as well as *hit* him. In some such way the first weapon better than clubs and stones might have been *invented*. Now *to invent* means to "happen on"

or "discover." Man has happened on and found out accidentally very many things that he has slowly learned through the ages.

2. Man Learns by Imitation. One of the great differences between man and other animals is that what one man invents may be imitated by others and become a tradition of the tribe. An old animal—let us say an elephant or horse—has learned something by experience and is wiser than a young one, but he cannot teach what he knows to the baby elephant or colt. Men and women, however, can teach boys and girls what they have learned. In this way discoveries which have been made from time to time have been passed down from generation to generation and have become more and more numerous, until the descendants of men who could not make a fire or speak a sentence or build a canoe have finally, in modern times, been able to construct an electric furnace hotter than the sun itself, dispatch messages around the world, and send great steamships back and forth across the sea. Each new invention usually depends on earlier inventions and these on still earlier ones, until, if we could follow the history of civilization back to the very beginning, we might find the man under the tree making the first spear hundreds of thousands of years ago.

3. Civilization the Story of Invention. The history of civilization is the story of how man invented and discovered all those things which we now have and of which at the start he was ignorant. We nowadays think of invention as going on rapidly, so that even a boy or girl can observe that new things are being discovered as he looks around or reads the newspapers and magazines. But in the beginning invention went on very, very slowly, and mankind has spent almost its whole existence in a state of savagery far below that of the most ignorant peoples to be found today in central Africa or the arctic regions.

4. Man's Long History and Slow Progress. If we imagine that man began to make the simplest inventions five hundred thousand years ago, and we let this five hundred thousand years be represented by a line fifty feet long, each foot would correspond to ten thousand years. Forty-nine feet would represent the period

before man learned to raise crops, tame and breed animals, make pottery, and weave cloth; the last six or seven inches, the time that he has been able to write; the last three inches, the period during which he has been studying science; the last half-inch, the time since the printing press became common; and the last fifth of an inch, the period since he discovered he could make the steam engine work for him and carry him about. A great part of the problems of the present day are due to the rapidity with which invention now goes on and changes the conditions in which we live. But our remote ancestors probably lived for thousands and thousands of years without experiencing any great changes due to inventions, for it is only during the past five or six thousand years that civilization finally reached a point where ever more rapid progress could be made.

A Flint Fist-Hatchet belonging to the Early Stone Age

Rough flint flakes older than the fist-hatchet show us man's earliest efforts at shaping stone. But the fist-hatchet is the earliest well-finished type of tool produced by man. The original is about nine inches long. Handles of wood or horn do not appear until much later

II. The Early Stone Age

5. Great Age of Man shown by Stone Tools and Weapons. Of the earliest period of man's existence we have no traces except perhaps a few human bones. It was only when he began to make stone implements by chipping fragments of flint into rude knives and hatchets that he created anything that could last down to our day. How old the most ancient of these stone weapons are we do not know. They may have been made a hundred thousand years ago, perhaps earlier. They are found in England, France, and Belgium and

all around the Mediterranean Sea, especially along river banks, where they were dropped and, as the ages went on, deeply buried under sand and soil. Along with them are the bones of tropical animals, for the climate of Europe was warm in those remote times and the hippopotamus, rhinoceros, and elephant lived where Paris and London now stand.

SIMPLEST METHOD OF MAKING FIRE

A hard stick is rubbed rapidly back and forth on a strip of soft wood. A groove is formed, and the particles of wood rubbed off take fire from the heat produced by the friction

For thousands of years the European savages led the lives of hunters and protected themselves as best they could with their stone and wooden weapons against the wild beasts and their fellow savages. They built no huts or shelter so far as we know and slept on the ground wherever darkness overtook them.

6. Fire and Language. Man must have early made use of the fire resulting from volcanoes or from lightning which often set the forests aflame. He was able then to cook his food and keep himself warm. But a long time probably elapsed before he discovered for himself how to *make* fire, as savages still do by rubbing two sticks together.

We know nothing of the invention of language, but man could not have gone far without some means of communication with his fellows.

IVORY NEEDLE OF THE STONE AGE

Such needles are found in the rubbish in the French caverns, where the wives of the prehistoric hunters lost them and failed to find them again twenty thousand years ago. They show that these women were already sewing together the skins of wild animals as clothing

7. Earliest Examples of Art. For reasons that cannot fully be explained the climate grew cold, and the ice and snow which always cover the high mountains and the region around the north pole began to creep downward until it covered all England and much of northern Europe. The tropical animals disappeared, and man had to take to living in caves and wearing the skins of animals in order to survive. From the remains now found in the

French and Spanish caverns it is clear that man had learned by this time to make flint knives, drills, scrapers, and hammers and with these could work bone and reindeer horn into needles, spoons, and ladles. He also learned to carve pictures on his

Drawings carved by Stone Age Man on Ivory

implements and adorn the walls of caves with paintings of fish, bison, deer, and wild horses. These are sometimes beautifully executed and very lifelike. They represent the earliest examples of human art and may go back fifteen or twenty thousand years.[1]

III. The Late Stone Age

8. The Late Stone Age. At length the climate grew warmer, much as it is today. The traces left by the ice would lead us to think that it withdrew northward for the last time probably some ten thousand years ago. The progress which man had made by this time in a number of important ways marks this period following the final retreat of the ice as the Late Stone Age. During the long, long years known as the *Early* Stone Age man knew only how to chip or flake his stone weapons. Now, however, he had learned that it was possible to grind the edge of a stone ax or chisel, as we grind tools of metal today. He was also able to drill a hole in a stone ax head and insert a handle. With the new tools that he had learned to make he could considerably improve his conditions of living. First, with his ground

[1] According to geologists the ice has advanced and retreated four times. It is now believed that stone implements were first made in the third warm interval, and that it was the cold of the *fourth* glacial period which drove men to their cave life. This period may be called the *Middle Stone Age*. For a fuller account of early man and the glacial periods see Breasted, *Ancient Times*, chap. i.

stone axes, hatchets, and chisels he could now build *wooden* huts. These wooden dwellings of the Late Stone Age are the earliest such shelters in Europe. Sunken fragments of these houses are found along the shores of the Swiss lakes, lying at the bottom among the wooden piles which supported them. Second, pieces of

Restoration of a Swiss Lake-Dwellers' Settlement

The lake-dwellers felled trees with their stone axes and cut them into piles some twenty feet long, sharpened at the lower end. These they drove several feet into the bottom of the lake, in water eight or ten feet deep. On a platform supported by these piles they then built their houses. The platform was connected with the shore by a bridge, which may be seen here on the right. A section of it could be removed at night for protection. The fish nets seen drying on the rail, the "dug-out" boat of the hunters who bring in the deer, and many other things have been found on the lake bottom in recent times

stools, chests, carved dippers, spoons, and the like, of wood, show that these houses were equipped with all ordinary *wooden* furniture. Third, the householder had learned that clay will harden in the fire, and he was making handy *jars, bowls,* and *dishes*. Fourth, before his door the women sat spinning flax thread, for the rough skin clothing of his ancestors had been replaced by garments of *woven stuff*. Fifth, the lake-dwellers already enjoyed one of

the greatest things gained by man in his slow advance toward civilization. This was the food grains which we call *cereals*, especially wheat and barley. The seeds of the wild grasses, which their ancestors had been accustomed to eat, these Late Stone Age men had now learned to cultivate. Thus wild grain was

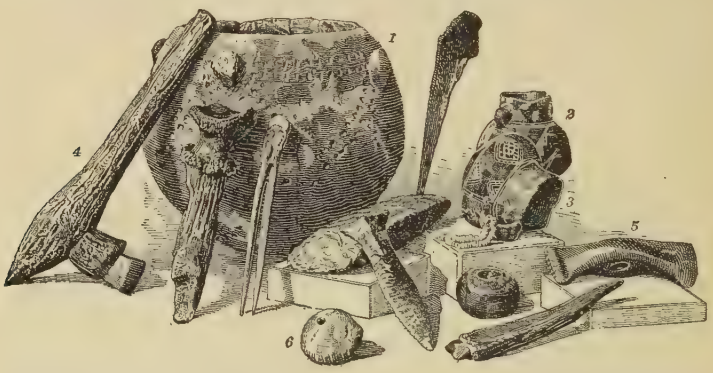
GREAT STONE CIRCLE INCLOSING A TOMB, OR GROUP OF TOMBS, OF THE LATE STONE AGE CHIEFTAINS AT STONEHENGE, ENGLAND

The circle is about one hundred feet across, and a long avenue connecting it with the neighboring Late Stone Age town is still traceable. No one knows how the men of the Late Stone Age were able to handle these great stones. Western Europe produced nothing more than this rude architecture in stone until the coming of the Romans

domesticated and *agriculture* was introduced. Sixth, these Late Stone Age men possessed *domestic cattle*. For the mountain sheep and goats and the wild cattle had now been taught to dwell near man and submit to his control. The wild ox bowed his neck to the yoke and drew the plow across the forest-girt field where he had once wandered in unhampered freedom. Fragments of wooden wheels in the lake-villages show that oxen were also drawing wheeled carts, the earliest in Europe.

9. Rise of Civilization in Egypt (4000–3000 B.C.). Thus far we have followed man's advance only in Europe. Similar progress had also been made by Stone Age men all around the

Mediterranean; that is, about 4000 B.C., not only in Europe but in Asia, and especially in northern Africa, mankind had reached about the same stage of advancement. But civilization cannot arise or advance without the following three things: *writing*, the use of *metals*,[1] and the control of men by an organized *government*.



PART OF THE EQUIPMENT OF A LATE STONE AGE LAKE-DWELLER

This group contains the evidence for three important inventions made or received by the men of the Late Stone Age: first, pottery jars, like *2* and *3*, with rude decorations, the oldest baked clay in Europe, and *1*, a large kettle; second, ground-edged tools like *4*, a stone chisel with ground edge, mounted in a deerhorn handle like a hatchet, or *5*, stone ax with a ground edge, and pierced with a hole for the ax handle (the houses shown in the cut on page 6 were built with such tools); and third, weaving, as shown by *6*, a spinning "whorl" of baked clay. When suspended by a rough thread of flax, it was given a whirl which made it spin in the air like a top, thus rapidly twisting the thread by which it was hanging

Nowhere around the entire Mediterranean did the world of the Late Stone Age as yet possess these things, nor did Europe ever gain them for itself unaided. Europe *borrowed* them. Hence we must now turn elsewhere to see where these, and many other things that help to make up our civilization, first appeared. The

[1] Metal was introduced in *southeastern* Europe about 3000 B.C. and passed like a slow wave, moving gradually westward and northward across Europe. It probably did not reach Britain until about 2000 B.C. Hence we have included the great stone monuments of western Europe (like Stonehenge) in our survey of Stone Age Europe. They were erected long after *southeastern* Europe had received metal, but before metal came into common use in *western* Europe (§ 20).

Egyptians, emerging from the Late Stone Age, invented a system of writing, discovered metal, and learned to use it. In the thousand years between 4000 and 3000 B.C. the Egyptians of the Late Stone Age advanced to a great and wonderful civilization, while the Europeans whom we have been describing still remained in barbarism. Hence, in order to understand the further history of Europe we must turn to Egypt. We shall then see how the Egyptians emerged from the Late Stone Age and became the first great civilized nation.

10. Prehistoric Period (before 4000 B.C.) and the Historic Period. It was not until man invented *writing* and began to produce written documents, and monuments bearing inscriptions, that the *Historic Period* began. All that we know about men of the Stone Age we have to learn from the weapons, tools, implements, buildings, and other works of his hands which happen to have been preserved. The age before the appearance of written records we call the *Prehistoric Period*. The transition from the Prehistoric to the Historic Period did not take place suddenly, but was a slow process. The Historic Period began in the Orient during the thousand years between 4000 and 3000 B.C., as civilization advanced and writing became more common.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe man's condition before civilization began. How would you define civilization? Give some examples of its progress. Give an example of how all inventions depend on previous ones. Mention as many things as you can which had to be invented before an automobile could be made. Mention some things you have learned by imitation.

II. What remains of the Stone Age have been discovered in Europe? Have you seen any stone utensils made by American Indians? What forced man to live in caves and to invent clothing? How would you be able to live without fire?

III. What were the inventions of the Late Stone Age? What seeds, roots, fruits, and berries do we use for food? What is the importance of the civilization of Egypt in the history of Europe?

CHAPTER II

EGYPTIAN CIVILIZATION

I. Beginnings of a Higher Civilization

11. Peculiarities of Egypt. Egypt is a very strange country. It comprises the northern end of the valley which the river Nile has slowly cut for itself across the eastern part of the great desert of Sahara. Egypt includes the triangular Delta, a very fertile region to the north of Cairo, and then the long, narrow valley winding some seven hundred and fifty miles to the First Cataract, where the river flows rapidly among great rocks. The valley is usually twenty-five or thirty miles wide, lying between bare cliffs, over which the sands of the desert blow. On each side of the river is a narrow strip of cultivated land between the cliffs and the stream.

12. The Rise and Fall of the Nile. It almost never rains in Egypt, and the sun shines every day, summer and winter, so that the farmers have had to rely for water entirely on the river. But far up the Nile and its tributaries there is plenty of rain in the spring, which yearly floods the valley in which Egypt lies and raises the level of the river from twenty-five to thirty feet between Cairo and Aswan. This overflow of the Nile covers the fields each year and deposits a thin layer of fresh, fertile soil as the muddy waters subside. For thousands of years the Egyptians have been accustomed to store up the waters at their flood and to raise water from the Nile itself to irrigate their fields during the period when the river was low. (See *Ancient Times*, §§ 46–47.)

13. Long History of Ancient Egypt. The first Egyptian king who governed all Egypt—indeed one of the very first human beings whose name has come down to us—was Menes, who lived about 3400 B.C. The earliest capital of Egypt was Memphis, a vast

town very near the spot where the modern city of Cairo lies. Menes founded the first *dynasty*, or family of kings, and afterwards the Egyptian dynasties rose and fell for over three thousand years, until finally a Greek conqueror, Alexander the Great, brought Egypt under his sway and founded the city of Alexandria (332 B.C.), which is now the chief port of Egypt (§§ 165, 168 ff). We cannot retrace here the history of Egypt's rulers through three thousand years and more or the conquests they made in Western Asia. We shall have to confine our account to the wonderful contributions made to civilization by the Egyptians. Their discoveries and inventions were finally introduced into Europe and now form a part of our everyday life.

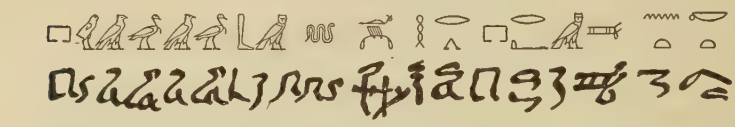
PICTORIAL MESSAGE SCRATCHED ON WOOD BY ALASKAN INDIANS

A figure with empty hands hanging down helplessly, palms down, as an Indian gesture for uncertainty, ignorance, emptiness, or nothing, means "no." A figure with one hand on its mouth means "eating" or "food." It points toward the tent, and this means "in the tent." The whole is a message stating, "[There is] no food in the tent"

14. The Invention of Writing. The Egyptians were the first people so far as we know to possess an alphabet and learn how to write. No people could possibly advance very far in civilization without written records of any kind, or means of sending messages, or any books from which they could learn what others had found out. Reading and writing have become so common now that we find it hard to realize what the world would be like if the art of writing should suddenly disappear and there were no books, newspapers, magazines, or letters and no way of communicating with anyone except by word of mouth.

The first step in the development of writing was the use of rude pictures such as the North American Indians employed; for an event and even a kind of story can be told by drawings without any writing (see accompanying cut). All writing, whether it developed as it did first in Egypt or later in Babylonia and China, is derived from such pictures of things previously used to convey ideas.

15. Phonetic Signs. As time went on these pictures, or *hieroglyphics* as they were called in Egypt, came to represent sounds that were made in speaking as well as the objects they had originally stood for. For example (assuming for the sake of illustration that the Egyptian words were the same as the English), the sign for "man" might become the sign for the *syllable* "man"



An Example of Egyptian Hieroglyphic Writing

The upper line shows the way in which the hieroglyphics were carved and painted on the tomb walls and monuments. But when the Egyptians wrote rapidly with a pen and ink on papyrus they simplified the figures, which then were made as they are represented in the lower line

wherever it occurred, as in "*man*ner," "*man*ifest," "*man*ifold," "*man*ufacture." In the same way, a bee might become the sign for the *syllable* "be" and a leaf for the sound of the *syllable* "leaf." When used together these syllables formed a new word, "belief." Such signs were then no longer regarded as pictures of things, but as syllables which could be used in any combination one wished. Writing which represents in this way the *sounds* we make when we speak is called *phonetic*, and this is the kind of writing we use today. All the letters on this page represent *sounds*, not things. The advantage of phonetic signs is readily appreciated when we come to express ideas—such as beauty, love, truth, or virtue—which cannot be represented by pictures of objects.

16. Alphabetic Signs. The Egyptians went still further, for there finally arose a series of signs, each representing only one letter; that is, *alphabetic* signs, or real letters. There were twenty-four letters in their alphabet, which was used in Egypt long before 3000 B.C. It was the earliest alphabet known and the one from which our own has descended (see *Ancient Times*, §§ 51–56).

17. Invention of Writing Materials. The Egyptians early found out that they could make an excellent ink by thickening water with a little vegetable gum and then mixing in a little soot from the blackened pots over the fire. By dipping a pointed reed into this mixture one could write very well. They also learned that they could split and flatten out a kind of river reed, called *papyrus*, into thin strips and make large sheets by pasting the strips together with overlapping edges. They thus produced a smooth, almost white paper. In this way pen, ink, and paper came into use for the first time. Our word "paper" is the ancient name *papyr(os)*, but slightly changed. With the invention of phonetic writing, records could now be made, and with the appearance of such written records the Historic Period begins.

18. Egyptian Origin of our Calendar. The Egyptians early found it necessary to measure time. The time from new moon to new moon seemed to them, as to all other early peoples, a very convenient rough measure. But the moon-month varies in length from twenty-nine to thirty days, and it does not evenly divide the year. Thoughtful Egyptians early discovered this inconvenience and decided to use the moon no longer for dividing the year. They divided the year into twelve months, all of the same length; that is, thirty days each. Then at the end of the year they established a holiday period five days long. This gave them a year of three hundred and sixty-five days. The Egyptian was not yet enough of an astronomer to know that every four years he ought to have a leap year, of three hundred and sixty-six days, although he discovered this fact later. This calendar is the very one which has descended to us after more than six thousand years. Unfortunately it has meantime suffered awkward alterations in the lengths of the months, for which the Egyptians were not responsible.

19. Discovery of Metal (at least 4000 B. C.). Meantime the Egyptians were also making great progress in other matters. It was probably in the peninsula of Sinai (see map, p. 24) that some Egyptian, wandering about, once happened to bank his camp fire with pieces of copper ore lying on the ground near the

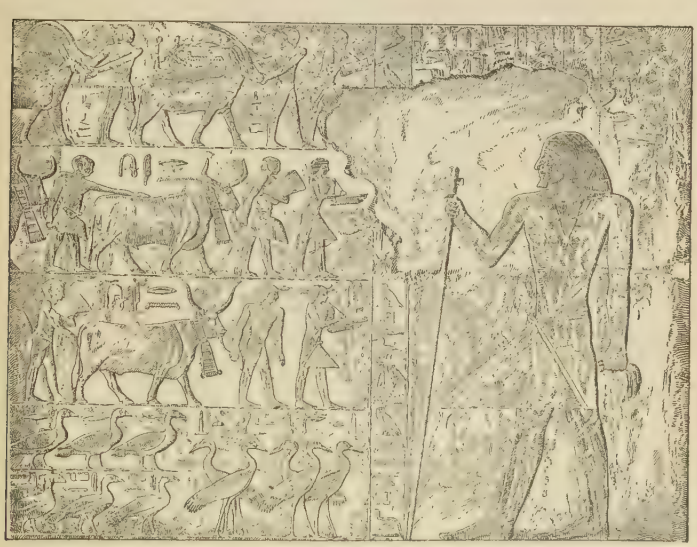
camp. The charcoal of his wood fire mingled with the hot fragments of ore, and thus the ore was "reduced," as the miners say; that is, the copper in metallic form was released from the lumps of ore. Next morning the Egyptian discovered a few glittering metal globules. Before long he learned whence these strange shining beads came. He produced more of them, at first only to be worn as ornaments by the women. Then he learned to cast the metal into a blade to replace the flint knife which he carried.

20. Dawning of the Age of Metal. Without knowing it this man stood at the dawning of a new era, the Age of Metal. The bit of shining copper which he drew from the ashes, if this Egyptian wanderer could have seen it, might have reflected to him a vision of steel buildings, huge factories roaring with the noise of thousands of machines of metal, and vast stretches of railroads. Since the discovery of fire, thousands of years earlier, man had made no advance which could compare in importance to the first use of metal (note, § 9).

II. Age of the Pyramids

21. Egypt like a Museum. Egypt is like a vast historical museum, through which the traveler can wander and study the way in which the ancient Egyptians lived and many of the things they made and did. We owe this museum to the Egyptians' firm belief in a life to come after death. In order to enjoy existence in the next world they thought that the body must be preserved by embalming it and then be safely placed in a tomb where no one could disturb its rest. Such well-preserved bodies are called mummies. They are generally the remains of Egyptian kings and nobles, who could afford a well-built tomb and the expenses of careful embalming. It was believed that if the dead man was to be happy in the next world he should be surrounded by the things he had used in his lifetime and by pictures of his former servants, workmen, cattle, and even his dinner table. So the tombs are themselves like museums, for they contain the actual furniture and utensils and jewelry that the rich Egyptian used, as well as reliefs, statuettes, and wall-paintings representing his daily life.

Had the tombs continued to be constructed of sun-dried mud bricks and roofed with wood, as they were originally built, they would have disappeared long ago, but shortly after the time of Menes, the kings and princes began to construct tombs of hewn



Relief Scene from the Chapel of a Noble's Tomb in the Pyramid Age

The tall figure of the noble stands at the right. He is inspecting three lines of cattle and a line of fowl brought before him. Note the two scribes who head the two middle rows. Each is writing with pen on a sheet of papyrus, and one carries two pens behind his ear. Such reliefs after being carved were colored in bright hues by the painter

stone. These have proved to be very massive and enduring. Later, the burial chambers of the tombs were hewn in the rock many feet below the surface in the desert beyond the cultivated fields. Many of the tombs have been explored in modern times, and so dry is the climate that the articles found in them, as well as the painting and statuary, are as fresh and wonderful as they were thousands of years ago when their owner went to his long rest (§§ 25–29).

22. The Great Pyramids. About the year 3000 B.C. tombs began to be built in the form of a pyramid, and about 2900 B.C. the king's architect was able to construct the amazing Great Pyramid of Gizeh, near the ancient Egyptian capital of Memphis. The royal city, with its villas and gardens and the offices of government, has quite vanished, for the structures made of sun-baked brick and wood have long ago crumbled to dust, but

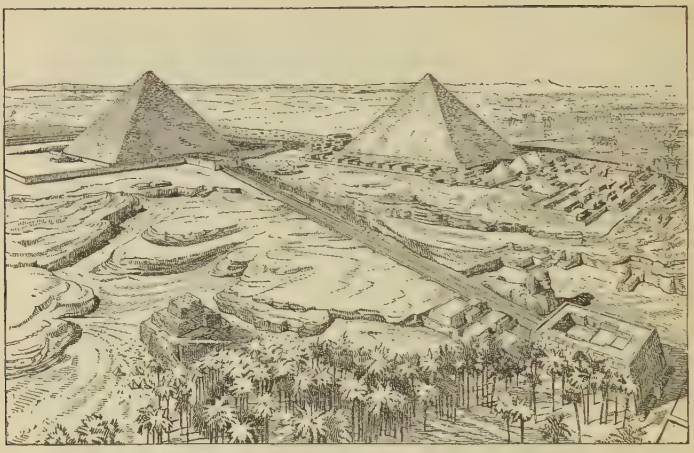
EARLIEST REPRESENTATION OF A SEAGOING SHIP (TWENTY-EIGHTH CENTURY B.C.)

the Great Pyramid and a long line of lesser ones built by later kings still bear witness to the surprising skill of the Nile-dwellers five thousand years ago. Already they had advanced in their civilization far beyond that of the lake-dwellers of the Late Stone Age whom we left behind in Europe.

23. Vast Size of the Great Pyramid. The Great Pyramid covers thirteen acres. It is a solid mass of masonry containing two million three hundred thousand blocks of limestone, each weighing on an average two and a half tons; that is, each block is as heavy as a large wagonload of coal. The sides of the pyramid at the base are seven hundred and fifty-five feet long, and the building was originally nearly five hundred feet high. An ancient story tells us that a hundred thousand men were working on this royal tomb for twenty years.

We perceive at once that it must have required a very skillful ruler and a great body of officials to manage and to feed a hundred thousand workmen around the Great Pyramid. The king who

THE GREAT SPHINX AND THE PYRAMID OF GIZEH. (FROM A PHOTOGRAPH)



Restoration of the Great Pyramids and Other Tomb-Monuments in the Ancient Cemetery of Gizeh, Egypt. (After Hoelscher)

These royal tombs (pyramids) belonged to the leading kings of the Fourth Dynasty, which came in the early part (2900–2750 B.C.) of the Pyramid Age. The Great Pyramid, the tomb of King Khufu (Greek, *Cheops*), is on the right. Next in size is that of King Khafre (Greek, *Chephren*) on the left. On the east side (front) of each pyramid is a temple, where the food, drink, and clothing were placed for the use of the dead king. These temples, like the pyramids, were built on the desert plateau above, while the royal town was in the valley below (on the right). For convenience, therefore, the temple was connected with the town below by a covered gallery, or corridor, of stone, seen here descending in a straight line from the temple of King Khafre and terminating below, just beside the Sphinx, in a large oblong building of stone, called a valley-temple. It was a splendid structure of granite serving not only as a temple but also as the entrance to the great corridor from the royal city. The pyramids are surrounded by the tombs of the queens and the great lords of the age. At the lower left-hand corner is an unfinished pyramid, showing the inclined ascents up which the stone blocks were dragged. These ascents were built of sun-baked brick and were removed after the pyramid was finished

controlled such vast undertakings was no longer a local chieftain, like the earliest rulers of Egypt, but he now ruled a united Egypt, the earliest great unified nation, having several millions of people.

24. Earliest Seagoing Ships. In the Pyramid Age the Egyptians began to extend their trade beyond the boundaries of Egypt. A few surviving blocks from a fallen pyramid-temple south of Gizeh bear carved and painted reliefs showing us the ships which they ventured to send beyond the shelter of the Nile mouths far across the end of the Mediterranean to the coast of Phœnicia (see map, p. 24). This was in the middle of the twenty-eighth century B.C., and this relief contains the oldest known picture of a seagoing ship.

EGYPTIAN PEASANT MILKING IN THE PYRAMID AGE

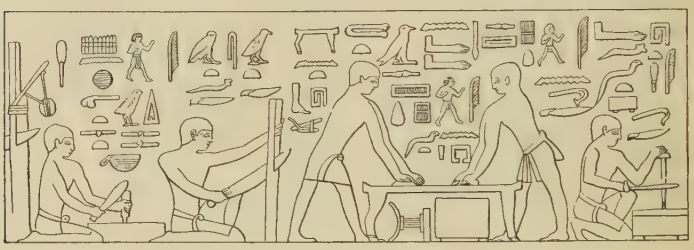
The cow is restive, and the ancient cowherd has tied her hind legs. Behind her another man is holding her calf, which rears and plunges in the effort to reach the milk. Scene from the chapel of a noble's tomb

25. Agriculture. A stroll among the tombs clustering so thickly around the pyramids of Gizeh is almost like a walk among the busy communities of this populous valley in the days of the pyramid-builders, for the stone walls are often covered from floor to ceiling with carved scenes, beautifully painted, picturing the daily life on the great estate of which the buried noble had been lord. The tallest form in all these scenes is that of the dead noble. He stands looking out over his fields and inspecting the work going on there. These fields, where the oxen draw the plow and the sowers scatter the seed, are the oldest farming scenes known to us. Here, too, are the herds, long lines of sleek fat cattle. But we find no pictures of horses in these tombs of the Pyramid Age, for the horse was then unknown to the Egyptian.

26. Craftsmen. On the next wall we find again the tall figure of the noble overseeing the sheds and yards where the craftsmen of his estate are working. The coppersmith could make

excellent tools of all sorts.[1] The tool which demanded the greatest skill was the long, flat ripsaw, which the smith knew how to hammer into shape out of a broad strip of copper sometimes five or six feet long. Such a saw may be seen in use in the accompanying cut.

On the same wall we find the lapidary holding up for the noble's admiration splendid stone bowls cut from diorite. Although this kind of stone is as hard as steel, the bowl is ground



CABINETMAKERS IN THE PYRAMID AGE

At the left a man is cutting with a chisel, which he taps with a mallet; next, a man "rips" a board with a copper saw; next, two men are finishing off a couch, and at the right a man is drilling a hole with a bow-drill. Scene from the chapel of a noble's tomb. Compare a finished chair belonging to a wealthy noble of the Empire (see cut on page 21)

to such thinness that the sunlight glows through its dark-gray sides. The booth of the goldsmith is filled with workmen and apprentices weighing gold and costly stones, hammering and casting, soldering and fitting together richly wrought jewelry which can hardly be surpassed by the best goldsmiths and jewelers of today.

27. The Potter's Wheel and Furnace; Earliest Glass. In the next space on this wall we find the potter no longer building up his jars and bowls with his fingers alone, as in the Stone Age.

[1] Before the end of the Pyramid Age the coppersmiths had learned how to *harden* their tools by melting a small amount of tin with the copper. This produced a mixture of tin and copper, called bronze, which is much harder than copper. It is not yet certain where the first tin was obtained or who made the first bronze, but it may have come from the north side of the Mediterranean (*Ancient Times*, § 336).

He now sits before a small horizontal wheel, upon which he deftly shapes the vessel as it whirls round and round under his fingers. When the soft clay vessels are ready they are no longer unevenly burned in an open fire, as among the Late Stone Age potters in the Swiss lake-villages, but in closed furnaces.

Here we also find craftsmen making glass. This art the Egyptians had discovered centuries earlier. They spread the glass on tiles in gorgeous glazes for adorning house and palace walls (see *Ancient Times*, plate, p. 164). Later they learned to make charming many-colored glass bottles and vases, which were widely exported.

28. Weavers, Tapestry-makers, and Paper-makers. Yonder the weaving women draw forth from the loom a gossamer fabric of linen. The picture on this wall could not show us its fineness, but fortunately pieces of it have been found, wrapped around the mummy of a king of this age. These specimens of royal linen are so fine that it requires a magnifying glass to distinguish them from silk, and the best work of the modern machine loom is coarse in comparison with this fabric of the ancient Egyptian hand loom.

29. Life and Art in the Pyramid Age. Here on this chapel wall again we see its owner seated at ease in his palanquin, borne upon the shoulders of slaves. He is returning from the inspection of his estate, where we have been following him. His bearers carry him into the shady garden before his house, where they set down the palanquin and cease their song. This garden is the noble's favorite retreat. Here he may recline for an hour of leisure with his family and friends, playing at a game like checkers, listening to the music of harp, pipe, and lute, or watching his women in the slow and stately dances of the time, while his children are sporting about among the arbors, splashing in the pool as they chase the fish, or playing with ball, doll, and jumping jack.

The portrait sculptor was the greatest artist of this age. His statues were carved in stone or wood and painted in lifelike colors; the eyes were inlaid with rock crystal. More lifelike

portraits have never been produced by any age, although they are the earliest in the history of art. The statues of the kings are often superb. In size the most remarkable statue of the Pyramid Age is the Great Sphinx, which stands here in this cemetery of Gizeh. The head is a portrait of Khafre, the king who built the second pyramid of Gizeh. It was carved from a promontory of rock which overlooked the royal city, and is the largest portrait bust ever wrought.

III. Civilization of the Empire

30. The Period of the Empire (1580–1150 B.C.). We have now seen the many things that the Egyptians had learned to make in the Pyramid Age. Another great age came long after, when about 1500 B.C. the Egyptian Pharaohs built up a huge empire including a large part of Western Asia and extending up to the Fourth Cataract of the Nile (see map, p. 24). The Napoleon of this period was Thutmose III, whose reign began about 1500 B.C. His armies subdued the cities and kingdoms of Western Asia and united them into an empire. He built the first great navy in history. He had many monuments erected in his honor, and one of them, an obelisk, stands in Central Park, New York, today.

31. Thebes and its Ruins. Under the Empire the chief city was no longer Memphis but Thebes, lying over four hundred miles up the Nile. The temple of Karnak there contains the greatest colonnaded hall ever erected by man. The columns of the central aisle are sixty-nine feet high. The vast capital surmounting each of the columns is so large that a group of a hundred men could stand on it. Mirrored in the surface of the temple lake this building made a picture of splendor such as the world had never beheld before.

The vast battle scenes carved on the temple walls were painted in bright colors. The gigantic statues of the Pharaohs, set up before the temples, were often so large that they rose above the towers of the temple front itself and could be seen for miles around. The sculptors often carved these colossal figures from

THE OBELISKS OF QUEEN HATSHEPSUT AND HER FATHER THUTMOSE I AT KARNAK

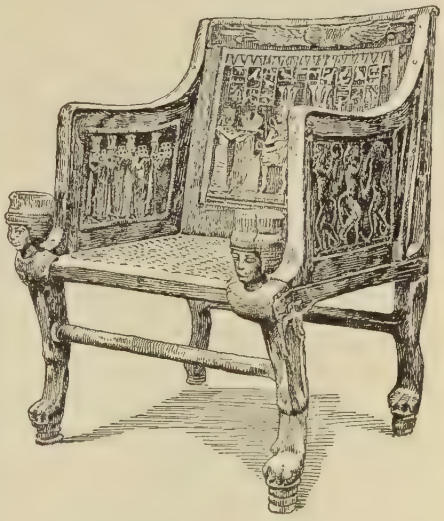
The farther obelisk is that of the queen. It was one of a pair transported from the First Cataract (§ 11), but its mate has fallen and broken into pieces. The shaft is eight and a half feet thick at the base, and the human figure by contrast conveys some idea of the vast size of the monument. (From an etching by George T. Plowman)

THE COLOSSAL COLUMNS OF THE NAVE IN THE GREAT HALL OF KARNAK

These are the columns of the middle two rows in the nave (see *Ancient Times*, Fig. 68). The human figures below show by contrast the vast dimensions of the columns towering above them

single blocks of stone eighty or ninety feet high, weighing as much as a thousand tons. Nevertheless the engineers of the Empire moved many such gigantic figures for hundreds of miles. It is in works of this massive, monumental character that the art of Egypt excelled.

32. The Treasures of the Tombs. Across the Nile from Thebes, cut into the rocky cliffs which border the river valley, are hundreds of tombs in which the Pharaohs and the nobles of their time were buried. They are adorned with frescoes and sculpture, with pictures of the gods and scenes from the life led by the great of the time, interspersed with magnificent hieroglyphic inscriptions. They sometimes contain the very furniture which their occupants had used,—chairs covered with gold and silver and fitted with soft cushions, beds of sumptuous workmanship,—jewel boxes and perfume caskets of the ladies, and even a gilded chariot in which a Theban noble took his afternoon airing thirty-three or thirty-four hundred years ago. Many of the articles have been removed to the museum at Cairo, and there is also a fine collection in the Metropolitan Museum of New York.



ARMCHAIR FROM THE HOUSE OF AN EGYPTIAN NOBLE OF THE EMPIRE

This elaborately decorated chair, with other furniture from his house, was placed in his tomb at Thebes in the early part of the fourteenth century B.C. There it remained for nearly thirty-three hundred years, till it was discovered in 1905 and removed to the National Museum at Cairo

The dead man's friends put into his mummy case rolls of papyrus containing prayers and magic charms to help him in

finding his way through the troubles that would meet him in the next world. These guidebooks have been collected and form what is called the Egyptian "Book of the Dead." From this and the inscriptions in the chambers hidden away deep in the pyramids scholars have learned much of the Egyptian religion and of the many gods in which the people believed. Some of the leading Egyptians of the Empire finally came to believe in a single god, and one of the emperors, Ikhnaton, started a great religious reform in which he wished to substitute the idea of one god for the old belief in many. But the priests and people were too much attached to their ancient notions to accept the new gospel, and Ikhnaton perished in the attempt. He is the first distinguished religious reformer of history.

33. Later Fate of Egypt. After the Egyptian Empire had lasted nearly four hundred years, invaders from the North—including many Europeans whom we left in the Stone Age—came in such numbers that they put an end to the ancient power of the Pharaohs, about 1150 B.C. But we know little of how it all happened. Temples and tombs continued to be built for hundreds of years after the fall of the Empire, but they are, in general, mere imitations of the earlier ones. Egyptian culture spread into other countries and greatly affected Western Asia and, later, eastern Europe. The Egyptians were the first to make great progress in industry, sculpture, painting, architecture, and government. The period of chief interest for us is that which we have sketched between the times of Menes (3400 B.C.) and that of Seti I and Ramses II, whose reigns closed in 1225 B.C. So the greatness of Egypt lasted for over two thousand years.

Later, Egypt was successively conquered by the Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and Turks, and finally came in recent times under the control of Great Britain. We must now turn to the civilizations which grew up in Western Asia during the period of Egypt's greatness and after her decline.

COLOSSAL PORTRAIT FIGURE OF RAMSES II AT ABU SIMBEL IN EGYPTIAN NUBIA

Four such statues, seventy-five feet high, adorn the front of this temple. The face of Ramses II here really resembles that of his mummy. There is from this point a grand view of the Nubian Nile, on which the statues have looked down for thirty-two hundred years. The picture was taken from the top of the crown of one of the statues. (Photograph by The University of Chicago Expedition)

REMARKABLE LIMESTONE PORTRAIT HEAD OF IKHNATON, THE EARLIEST MONOTHEIST

Discovered at Amarna. It gives an impression of the dreamy beauty of this extraordinary young king

HEAD OF THE MUMMY OF SETI I, FATHER OF RAMSES II, NOW IN THE CAIRO MUSEUM

One of the royal bodies discovered at Thebes (§ 32). The head of Seti is the best preserved of the entire group

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the chief geographical features of Egypt. Contrast picture writing with phonetic writing. Give some examples of words which could be represented by pictures and some which could not. What are some of the results of the invention of writing? How was metal probably discovered? How did the use of metal contribute to the development of civilization? Describe some of the important uses of metal today.

II. What is a mummy? What conditions in Egypt have served to make it a historical museum? Give some examples of the objects which have been found in tombs. Describe the Great Pyramid. If the Great Pyramid could be set down near your schoolhouse, about how much space would it occupy? Describe some of the chief industries in the Pyramid Age. Give some examples of the art in that period.

III. Describe the temple of Karnak at Thebes. What treasures have been found in the tombs of the kings of the Empire? What countries came into control of Egypt after the fall of the Empire? Do you know how Great Britain came to control Egypt today?

NOTE. The scene below shows us the life of the nomads referred to in the next chapter. The dark camel's-hair tents of these wandering shepherds are easily carried from place to place as they seek new pasturage. They live on the milk and flesh of the flocks

CHAPTER III

WESTERN ASIA: BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA, THE PERSIANS, AND THE HEBREWS

I. Babylonia and Assyria

34. The Sumerians. During the period when the Egyptians were building the pyramids, about 3000 B.C., early civilization was also developing in the valley of the two great rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates. A people called the Sumerians had long before wandered down from the eastern mountains into the plain just above the Persian Gulf, the region later called Babylonia. Here they learned to dig irrigation trenches and raise large harvests of barley and wheat. They already possessed cattle, sheep, and goats. The ox drew the plow; the donkey pulled wheeled carts and chariots, for the wheel as a burden-bearing device appeared here for the first time.[1] But the horse was still unknown. The smith had learned to fashion utensils of copper, but he did not at first know how to harden the copper into bronze by an admixture of tin (see § 26 and n.). The Sumerians built towns of sun-dried mud bricks. Each town with the land about it formed a little kingdom, which seems to have been generally fighting with its neighbors.

35. Cuneiform Writing; Numerals. The people began to keep their business accounts by making pictures on soft clay with the tip of a reed. Later, the outlines of these rude pictures were simplified into groups of wedge-shaped marks. Hence these signs are called cuneiform (Latin, *cuneus*, meaning "wedge"), or wedge-form, writing.

The Sumerian system of numerals was not based on tens but sixties. A large number was given as so many sixties, just as

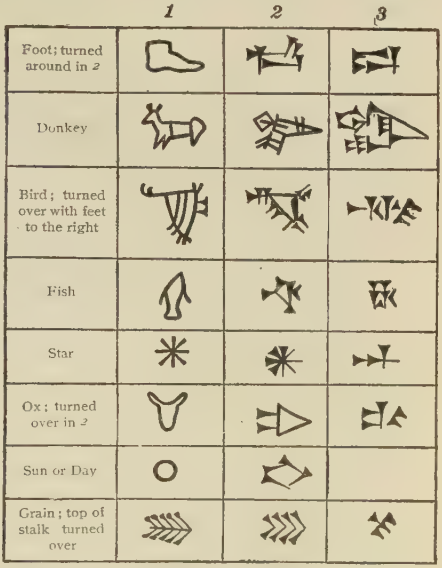
[1] Probably earlier than the wheel in the Swiss lake-villages of the Late Stone Age.

EUROPE
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
BALKAN MTS.
CAUCASUS MTS.
ASIA MINOR
HITTITE EMPIRE
ARMENIA
MEDIA
ASSYRIA
SYRIA
MESOPOTAMIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
DESERT
ARABIAN DESERT
PERSIAN GULF
PERSIA
Troy
Sardis
Mycenae
Gryns
Crete
Cnossus
Cyprus
Byblos
Sidon
Damascus
ISRAEL
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
Nile Delta
Rosetta Mouth
Canal
Gizeh
Memphis
Cairo
Pen. of Sinai
Oasis of Siwa
(Desert Shrine of Amon)
Beni Hasan Tombs
Amarna
Halys
Boghaz-Kei (Khatti)
IRON REGION
Carchemish
Dur Sharrukin
Sargonburg
Nineveh
Assur
Ecbatana
Behistun
Babylon
Susa
ELAM
Ur
TAURUS MTS.
ZAGROS MTS.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Jordan R.
Nile R.
Gulf of Issus
Orontes R.
Hellespont
Aegean Sea
Phoenicia
Judea
Canaan
Grassland
Rainfall
Desert
20
25
30
35
40
45
50
55
40
35
30
25

Elephantine I.
First Cataract
Abu Simbel
Second Cataract
River Nile
NUBIA
Tropic of Cancer
ARABIAN DESERT
Fourth Cataract
ETHIOPIA
Atbara
SUDAN
White Nile
Blue Nile
ABYSSINIA
SOMALI COAST
RED SEA
EGYPT
Cyprus
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
PHOENICIA
SYRIA
Orontes R.
Lebanon Mts.
GRASS-LANDS IN RAINY SEASON
Damascus
Sidon
Tyre
ISRAEL
Samaria
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
PHILISTINES
JUDEA
PALESTINE
Pen. of Sinai
THE ANCIENT ORIENTAL WORLD
AND NEIGHBORING EUROPE
BEFORE THE RISE OF THE GREEKS
Scale
0 100 200 300 400 500 Miles
Notice that the Persian Gulf extended 150 to 160 miles further north than at present, making Babylonia much smaller than it is today
R-R-G. CO., N.Y.
Longitude 40 East from Greenwich
35
45
20
15
10
5
30

we say a score, fourscore, fivescore. From this unit of sixty has descended our division of the circle (six sixties), and of the hour and minute.

36. The Semites. The great desert of Arabia extends northward as far as a crescent-shaped fertile belt stretching from Babylonia clear around to the Mediterranean coast. (This is called the "Fertile Crescent" on the map, p. 24, and colored green.) The desert had a sparse population of nomads (which means wandering shepherds and herdsmen) who wandered about and pitched their tents wherever they could find water and grass at certain seasons to feed their flocks. These nomads belonged to the Semitic race, of which the Arabs and the Hebrews are the best-known members. When towns grew up here and there in the Fertile Crescent they were often attacked by the desert wanderers, who would now and then adopt town life themselves.



EARLY BABYLONIAN SIGNS AND THE ORIGINAL PICTURES FROM WHICH THEY DEVELOPED

This list of eight signs shows clearly the pictures from which the signs came. The oldest form is in column *1*; column *2* shows the departure from the picture and the appearance of the signs as the lines began to become wedges. In column *3* are the later forms, consisting only of wedges and showing no resemblance to the original picture

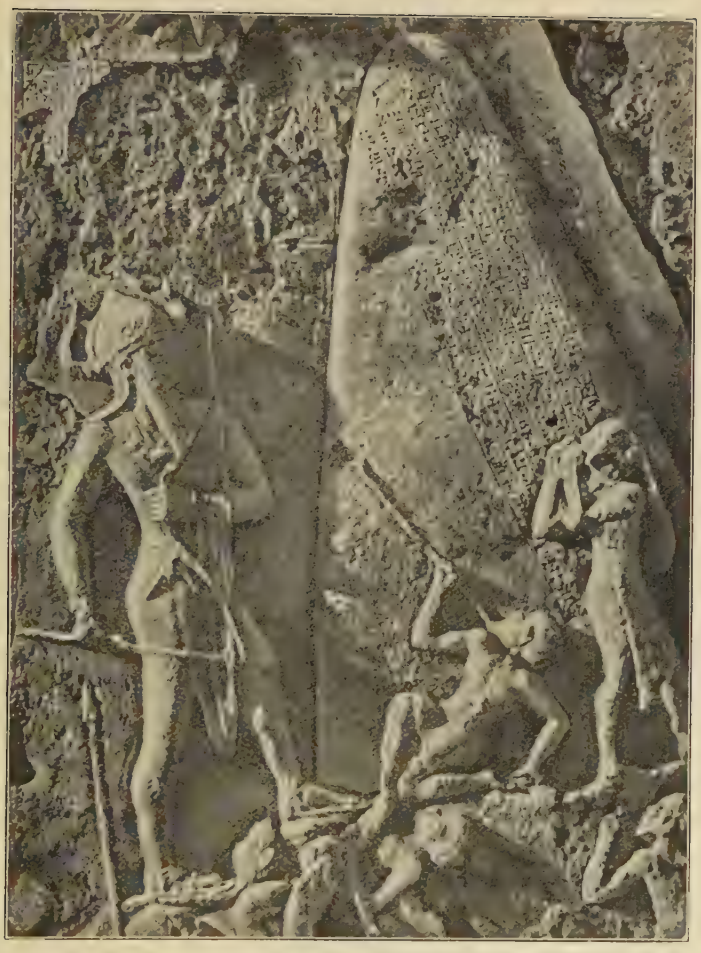
37. The Semites on the West End of the Fertile Crescent. As early as 3000 B.C. these nomads were drifting in from the desert and settling in Palestine, on the western end of the Fertile Crescent, where we find them in possession of walled towns five

hundred years later. Here they were the predecessors of the Hebrews and were called Canaanites. Along the Mediterranean shores of north Syria some of these former desert wanderers—the

Early Sumerian Clay Tablet with Cuneiform, or Wedge-Form Writing (Twenty-eighth Century B.C.)

This tablet was written toward the close of the early period of the city-kings, a generation before the accession of Sargon I (§ 38). It contains business accounts. The scribe's writing-reed, or *stylus*, was usually square-tipped. He pressed a corner of this square tip into the soft clay for *each line* of the picture sign. Lines so produced tended to be broad at one end and pointed at the other; that is, wedge-shaped. Each picture sign thus became a group of wedges, as shown in the preceding illustration. When the clay dried it was hard enough to make the tablet a fairly permanent record. Such tablets were sometimes baked and thus became as hard as pottery.
(By permission of Dr. Hussey)

Phœnicians—took to the sea and became great traders (§ 83). By 2000 B.C. all the settled communities had a civilization largely adopted from the cities of Babylonia and Egypt.



A KING OF AKKAD STORMING A FORTRESS—THE EARLIEST GREAT SEMITIC WORK OF ART (ABOUT 2700 B.C.)

King Naram-Sin of Akkad, one of the successors of Sargon I (§ 38), has pursued the enemy into a mountain stronghold. His heroic figure towers above his pygmy enemies, each one of whom has fixed his eyes on the conqueror, awaiting his signal of mercy. The sculptor, with fine insight, has depicted the dramatic instant when the king lowers his weapon as the sign that he grants the conquered their lives

38. Sargon I conquers the Sumerians about 2750 B.C. Semitic tribes from the desert invaded the region north of the Sumerian towns, and about 2750 B.C. the leader of these Semites, Sargon, a bold and able ruler, conquered the Sumerians and established the first important Semitic kingdom. The invaders took over the cuneiform characters to write their own language and forsook their tents and built brick houses instead. They learned all that the Sumerians had discovered, and in the matter of art, especially in sculpture, they far outstripped their teachers.

39. Hammurapi. About 2100 B.C. another Semitic king, Hammurapi, conquered all Babylonia (see map, p. 24). He is remembered chiefly for the code of laws that he had drawn up and engraved on a stone shaft, which has survived to our own day (*Ancient Times*, Fig. 93). Its provisions show much consideration of the poor and defenseless classes, but are not always just. Babylonia prospered greatly under the wise Hammurapi, and her merchants traveled far and wide. Through their bills, made out on clay tablets, the wedge-writing of Babylonia gradually spread through Western Asia. There was as yet no coined money, but lumps of silver of a given weight circulated so commonly that values were given in weight of silver. Loans were common, and the rate of interest was 20 per cent. Business was the chief occupation and was carried on even in the temples.

40. Higher Life of Babylonia. A journey through Babylonia today could not tell us such a story as do the temples and tombs which still exist on the Nile, for the Babylon of Hammurapi has perished utterly. There seems to have been no painting, but we have at least one example of fine sculpture (see cut on page 27). Of architecture little remains. There were no colonnades and no columns, but the *arch* was used over front doorways. All buildings were of brick, as Babylonia had no stone. There were schools where boys could learn to write cuneiform, and a schoolhouse of Hammurapi's time still survives, though in ruins (*Ancient Times*, Fig. 95).

41. Stagnation of Babylonian Civilization. After Hammurapi's death his kingdom swiftly declined. Barbarians from the

mountains poured into the Babylonian plain. The most important thing about them was that they brought with them the horse, which then appeared in Babylonia for the first time (twenty-first century B.C.). The barbarians divided and soon destroyed the kingdom of Hammurapi. After him there followed more than a thousand years of total stagnation in Babylonia.

42. The Assyrian Empire. There is nothing we need record here between the times of Hammurapi and the rise of the great Assyrian Empire a thousand years after his death. Semites from the desert had founded the town of Assur (see map, p. 30) and adopted the civilization of the Sumerians to the south (including cuneiform, to write their Semitic dialect). These people of Assur, whom we call Assyrians, had by 1100 B.C. marched westward and looked out on the Mediterranean. It took three hundred years thoroughly to conquer this region, but by 750 B.C. Assyria had firmly established herself along the Mediterranean. In the meantime she subdued Babylonia, thus gaining possession of the entire Fertile Crescent. She even gained control of Egypt in 670 and held it for a short time. Thus the once feeble little city of Assur gained the lordship

SILVER VASE OF A SUMERIAN CITY-KING

This is the finest piece of metal work from early Babylonia. The eagle and lions which appear on it formed the symbol, or arms, of the Sumerian city-kingdom of Lagash. Such animal symbols passed over into Europe and were used in modern times by Russia, Austria, Prussia, and other European nations. The eagle one sees on the United States coins is in a sense a descendant of the eagle of Lagash five thousand years ago

over Western Asia as the head of an *empire*—a group of conquered and subject states. It was the most extensive empire that that world had yet seen (see map).

43. Organization of the Assyrian Empire. To maintain the army was the chief work of the Assyrian government. The State was therefore a vast military machine, ruthless and terrible. From the Hittites (see map and § 76) iron had been introduced, and the Assyrian forces were the first large armies equipped with weapons of iron. The famous horsemen and chariots of Nineveh became the scourge of the East.

For the first time, too, the Assyrians employed powerful siege machinery, especially the battering-ram. This device was the earliest "tank," for it ran on wheels and carried armed men (see *Ancient Times*, p. 140). The sun-dried-brick walls of the Asiatic cities could thus be battered down. Wherever the terrible Assyrian armies swept through the land, they left a trail of ruin and desolation behind, and there were few towns of the Empire which escaped being plundered.

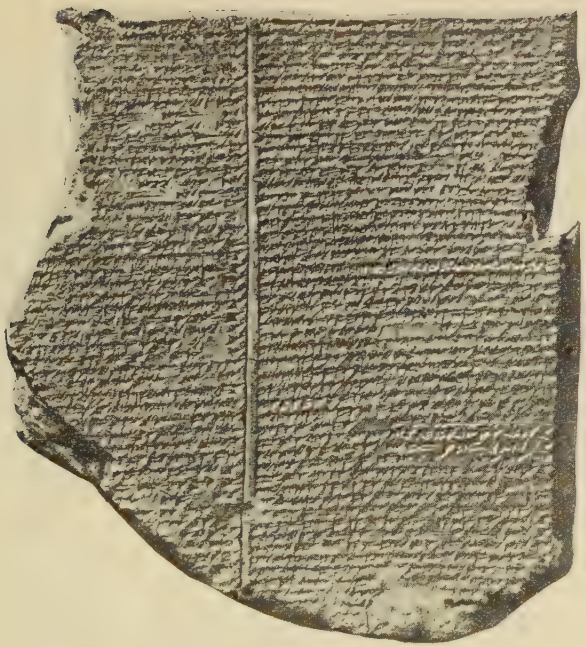
44. Sennacherib (705–681 B.C.) and his Capital, Nineveh. The Assyrian king Sennacherib was one of the great statesmen of the early Orient. He devoted himself to the city of Nineveh, north of Assur, which now became the far-famed capital of Assyria. Here in his gorgeous palace he and his successors ruled the Western Asiatic world with an iron hand and collected tribute from all the subject peoples.

45. Assyrian Palaces; the Library of Assurbanipal. The Assyrian palaces were imposing buildings adorned with arches of brilliantly colored glazed tiles (see *Ancient Times*, Plate II, p. 164). Vast statues of human-headed bulls guarded the entrance. Within the palace there were long rows of reliefs cut in alabaster (see cuts on pages 32–34) depicting the king's exploits. Nowhere does the artist succeed in expressing any feeling in the human faces, but his animals are often represented full of life.

In the excavations made in modern times at Nineveh a great library was found containing twenty-two thousand clay tablets. This was collected by Assurbanipal, the grandson of Sennacherib.

Map A
ASSYRIAN EMPIRE
7th Century B.C.
Assyrian Empire
Grecks
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
30
40
50
60
10
20
EUROPE
BLACK SEA
Caucasus Mts.
CASPIAN SEA
IRON REGION
Asia Minor
Aegean Sea
GREECE
Sardis
LYDIA
HELLAS
TURKYIA
Halys R.
CILICIA
CRETE
CYPRUS
PHOENICIA
SYRIA
Fertile Crescent
Tyre
Damascus
Jerusalem
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ASSYRIAN Empire
Tigris R.
Nineveh
Assur
MEDIA
Euphrates R.
Babylon
CHALDEA
ELAM
Susa
Iranian Plateau
Indus R.
Memphis
EGYPT
Thebes
Aswan
First Cataract
Second Catarct
Nile R.
ARABIA
Persian Gulf
INDIA
INDIAN OCEAN
AFRICA

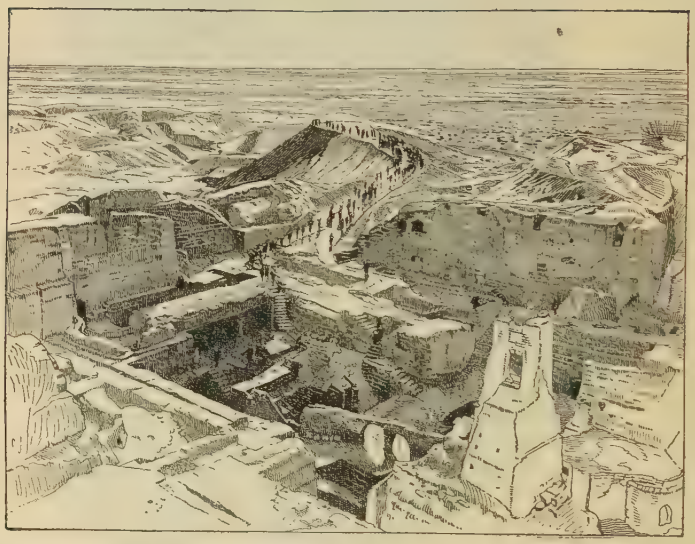
Map of Two Oriental Empires: A, the Assyrian Empire at its Height; B, the Persian



PORTION OF OLD BABYLONIAN STORY OF THE FLOOD FROM ASSURBANIPAL'S LIBRARY AT NINEVEH

This large flat tablet was part of an Assyrian cuneiform book consisting of a series of such tablets. This flood story tells how the hero, Ut-napishtim, built a great ship and thus survived a terrible flood, in which all his countrymen perished. Each of these clay tablet books collected by Assurbanipal for his library bore his "bookmark," just like a book in a modern library. To prevent anyone else from taking the book, or writing his name on it, the Assyrian king's bookmark contained the following warning: "Whosoever shall carry off this tablet, or shall inscribe his name upon it side by side with mine own, may Assur and Belit overthrow him in wrath and anger, and may they destroy his name and posterity in the land"

It shows us all that the Assyrians and their predecessors had been able to learn. There are a great many works dealing with magic and methods of forecasting future events; for instance, by watching the actions of sick people and examining the entrails of animals. There are also religious works and some dealing with grammar and other subjects.



EXCAVATION OF THE RUINS OF ANCIENT NIPPUR IN BABYLONIA

These ruins were excavated by the University of Pennsylvania Expedition in three campaigns between 1889 and 1900. This view shows the work of excavation going on. The earth (once sun-dried brick) is taken out in baskets and carried away by a long line of native laborers, who empty their baskets at the far end of an ever-growing bank of excavated earth. The ruinous buildings, once entirely covered, are slowly exposed, and among them often clay tablets or objects of pottery, stone, or metal. Thus are recovered the records and antiquities of ancient Babylonia. They lie at different levels, the oldest things nearer the bottom and the later ones higher up. The view to the horizon gives a good idea of the flat Babylonian plain. Only two generations ago the monuments and records of Babylonia and Assyria preserved in Europe could all be contained in a show case only a few feet square. Since 1840, however, archæological excavation, as we call such digging, has recovered great quantities of antiquities and records. Such work is now slowly recovering for us the story of the ancient world. (Drawn from a photograph furnished by courtesy of the University Museum, Philadelphia)

A

B

ANIMAL SCULPTURE OF THE BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS

A shows us the wonderful work of the Babylonian seal-cutter in the time of Sargon. At the left the bearded hero Gilgamesh, the ancestor of Hercules, is slaying a wild bull; he is aided by the hero Engidu, half man, half bull. Next, Gilgamesh alone is slaying a lion. In the right-hand seal, in balanced heraldic arrangement, a lion is twice shown slaying a wild bull. The lion hunt in *B* is one of the best examples of Assyrian relief sculpture of Assurbanipal's reign. It clearly shows the influence of the animal sculpture of the Babylonian seals, over two thousand years older

ASSYRIAN SOLDIERS OF THE EMPIRE. (FROM RELIEFS DISCOVERED IN THE PALACE OF ASSURBANIPAL)

It was the valor of these stalwart archers and spearmen which made Assyria mistress of the East for about a century and a half

46. Decline of Assyrian Power. But the Assyrian Empire was so vast that it proved impossible to hold it together. The army had to be recruited from the farming and manufacturing classes. So the fields were left uncultivated and manufacture declined.. Moreover, the foreign troops, which it was necessary to employ, formed a very dangerous element. Finally, Assyria was so

An Assyrian King hunting Lions

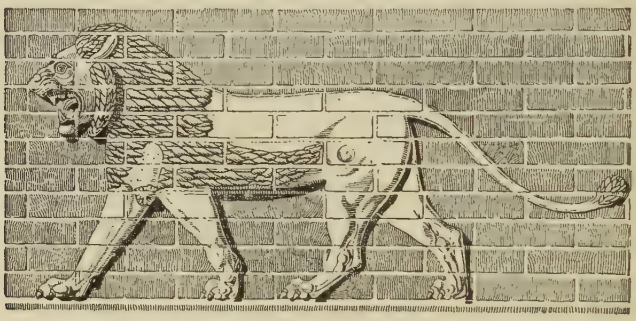
weakened that she could not resist the invasion of the Chaldeans, another Semitic tribe which had for many years been drifting along the shores of the Persian Gulf.

47. Destruction of Nineveh by the Medes and Chaldeans (606 B.C.). The Chaldeans first conquered Babylonia and then, after combining with the Medes (§ 52), they attacked the Assyrian capital of Nineveh, and this mighty city fell into their hands in 606 B.C. The Assyrian Empire was at an end, and we can hear in the voice of the Hebrew prophet Nahum (ii, 8, 13, and iii entire) an echo of the exulting shout which resounded from the Caspian to the Nile when the nations realized that the terrible scourge of the East was no longer to be feared. Nineveh speedily became the vast heap of rubbish it remains today.

48. Reign of Nebuchadnezzar (604–561 B.C.); Magnificence of Babylon. At Babylon, Nebuchadnezzar, the greatest of the Chaldean emperors, began a reign of over forty years—a reign of such power and magnificence, especially as narrated in the Bible, that he has become one of the great figures of oriental

history. It was he who carried away many Hebrews from Palestine to Babylonia as captives and destroyed Jerusalem, their capital (586 B.C.).

Copying much from Assyria, Nebuchadnezzar was able to surpass even his Assyrian predecessors in the splendor of the great buildings which he now erected at Babylon (see plan, *Ancient Times*, p. 165). Masses of rich tropical verdure, rising in terrace



GLAZED BRICK DECORATION FROM NEBUCHADNEZZAR'S PALACE AT BABYLON

The above lion figure adorned the wall of the throne room in the palace of Nebuchadnezzar at Babylon (§ 48). It is made of glazed brick in the brightest colors, which produced a gorgeous effect as architectural adornment. This art arose in Egypt, passed thence to Assyria and Babylonia, and was then adopted by the Persians

above terrace, crowned the roof of the gorgeous imperial palace, forming lofty roof gardens. Here in the cool shade of palms and ferns the great king might enjoy his leisure hours, looking down upon the splendors of his city. These roof gardens were the mysterious "Hanging Gardens" of Babylon, whose fame spread far into the West, until they were reckoned among the Seven Wonders of the World by the Greeks. The city was immensely extended by Nebuchadnezzar, and enormous fortified walls were built to protect it. It was this Babylon of Nebuchadnezzar which has become familiar to all Christian peoples as the great city of the Hebrew captivity (§ 64). So little survives of all the glories

which made it world-renowned in its time that nearly twenty years of excavation have recovered almost no standing buildings.

49. Civilization of Chaldean Babylon. The Chaldeans seem to have adopted the civilization of Babylonia in much the same way as other earlier Semitic invaders of this ancient plain. Science made notable progress in one important branch—astronomy. This was really at that time only what we call "astrology"; namely, a study of the heavenly bodies with the idea that one could forecast the future by observing the movements of the sun, moon, and planets. The equator was divided into 360 degrees, and for the first time the Chaldean astrologers laid out the twelve groups of stars which we call the "Twelve Signs of the Zodiac." The observations made by these Chaldean astrologers became so accurate that they were actually able to foretell an eclipse of the sun. These discoveries formed the basis of the science of astronomy, which the Greeks carried much further. Astrology was much studied in Europe during the Middle Ages. We unconsciously recall it in such phrases as "his lucky star" or an "ill-starred" undertaking. We still use the seven-day week which prevailed in Babylonia. The Chaldeans named the days of the week after the sun, moon, and five planets then known. Three of our days—Saturday (Saturnday), Sunday, and Monday (Moonday)—are still named after the heavenly bodies.

II. The Indo-European Peoples: the Persian Empire

50. Origin of the Indo-European Races. We have seen how Semitic nomads of the Arabian desert had repeatedly shifted over into the Fertile Crescent, conquered the town-dwellers there, and adopted their civilization. To the north were peoples of a different race, who were pasturing their flocks in the great stretch of grassland which extends north and east of the Caspian Sea and westward across what is now Russia to the lower Danube. These nomads of the North were the ancestors of the Persians, Greeks, Romans, Slavs, and the Germanic peoples, and consequently of the Europeans of today. They began moving about at a very

remote date. Some of them invaded India, and some of them got as far west as Britain. They are therefore commonly called the Indo-European peoples.

The Indo-European races were destined to conquer the older kingdoms of the Semites and raise civilization to a far higher point than it had previously reached. The parent people—sometimes called the Aryans—from which these races sprang seems to have been occupying the pasture lands to the east and northeast of the Caspian about 2500 B.C. Some of them had adopted an agricultural life, but they were still in the Stone Age except for some little use of copper. Besides cattle and sheep they had horses, which they rode and employed to pull their wheeled carts. They could not write.

51. The Indo-European Languages. As the Aryan tribes dispersed east and west and south they lost all contact with one another. While they originally spoke the same language, differences in speech gradually arose and finally became so great that the widely scattered tribes, even if they happened to meet, could no longer make themselves understood. At last they lost all knowledge of their original relationship. But the languages of modern civilized Europe, having sprung from the same Indo-European parent language, are therefore related to each other; so that, beginning with our own language in the West and going eastward across Europe into northern India, we can trace more than one common word from people to people. Note the following:

WEST			⟶		EAST
English	German	Latin	Greek	Old Persian	East Indian (Sanskrit)
brother	bruder	frater	phratēr	brata	bhrātā
mother	mutter	mater	mētēr	matar	mātā
father	vater	pater	patēr	pitar	pitā

52. Medes and Persians. Of the Aryan peoples settled east of the Caspian Sea some wandered into India. In their sacred books, which we call the Vedas, written in Sanskrit, we find many allusions to their earlier less civilized life. Other tribes pushed southwestward toward the Fertile Crescent. Of these the most

powerful were the Medes and the Persians. The Medes first established an extensive empire east of the Tigris. After the fall of the Assyrian Empire (606 B.C.) the Medes became an object of dread to their neighbors, especially to the Chaldeans of Babylonia.

53. The Religion of Zoroaster. The Medes and Persians were as yet far inferior in civilization to the Semites of the Fertile Crescent, but in one respect they had made a great advance. Two or three hundred years earlier a religious teacher had appeared among them, Zoroaster, who had thought out a religion that was destined to influence us down to the present day. He pondered much on the good and evil in life and the ceaseless struggle between them. The Good became for him a divine being whom he called Mazda, or Ahuramazda, and regarded as *God*. Ahuramazda was surrounded by a group of helpers much like angels, of whom one of the greatest was the Light, called "Mithras." Opposed to Ahuramazda and his helpers was an evil group led by a great Spirit of Evil named Ahriman. It was he who later became the *Satan* of the Jews and Christians.

Thus the faith of Zoroaster called upon every man to stand on one side or the other, to fill his soul with the Good and the Light or to dwell in the Evil and the Darkness. Whatever course a man pursued, he must expect a judgment hereafter. This was the earliest appearance in Asia of belief in a last judgment. Zoroaster maintained the old Aryan veneration of fire as a visible symbol of the Good and the Light. The new faith had gained a firm footing among the Persians; and Mithras, the god of light, was worshiped centuries later by many of the Romans, who preferred this religion to the newly introduced Christianity.

54. Cyrus and his Conquests. A great leader now arose among the Persians, Cyrus the Great. He first attacked and defeated his neighbors the Medes (549 B.C.), to whom the Persians had been subject, and made himself master of their territory. He then became the first great conqueror and empire-builder of Indo-European blood.

With a powerful Persian army that he had rapidly built up, Cyrus marched far to the west into Asia Minor and conquered

the kingdom of Lydia. He captured its capital, Sardis, and took prisoner its king, the wealthy and powerful Crœsus (546 B.C.). Within five years the power of the little Persian kingdom had thus swept across Asia Minor to the Mediterranean and had become the leading state in the oriental world. Turning back eastward Cyrus had no trouble in defeating the Chaldean army led by the young crown prince Belshazzar, whose name in the Book of Daniel (see Dan. v) is a well-known word throughout the Christian world. In spite of the vast walls erected by Nebuchadnezzar to protect Babylon, the Persians entered the great city in 539 B.C. seemingly without resistance.

RELIEF SHOWING PERSIAN SOLDIERS IN BABYLONIAN GARMENTS

Although carrying spears when doing duty as palace guards, these men were chiefly archers, as is shown by the size of the large cases, or quivers, on their backs for containing the supply of arrows. The bow hangs on the left shoulder

Thus the Semitic East completely collapsed before the advance of the Indo-European power, only sixty-seven years after the Chaldean conquest of Nineveh (§ 47). All Western Asia was now subject to the Persian kings. In 525 B.C., only three years after the death of Cyrus, his son Cambyses conquered Egypt. This conquest of the only remaining ancient oriental power rounded out the Persian Empire to include the whole civilized Orient from the Nile delta around the entire eastern end of the Mediterranean to the Ægean Sea and

from this western boundary eastward almost to India (see map, p. 30). The great task had consumed just twenty-five years since the overthrow of the Medes by Cyrus.

55. Organization of the Persian Empire by Darius. The organization of this vast empire, stretching from the Indus River to the Ægean Sea (almost as long as the United States from east to west) and from the Indian Ocean to the Caspian Sea, was a colossal task. Though begun by Cyrus, it was carried through by Darius the Great (521–485 B.C.). His organization was one of the most remarkable achievements in the history of the world. For the system introduced by Darius not only established government on a larger scale than the world had ever seen before, but it was government controlled by *one man.*

COLONNADES OF THE PALACE OF THE PERSIAN KINGS AT PERSEPOLIS

This sumptuous and ornate architecture of the Persians is made up of patterns borrowed from other peoples and combined

Darius did not desire further conquests. He had himself made actual king in Egypt and in Babylonia. The rest of the Empire he divided into twenty provinces, each called a "satrapy." Each province was under the control of a governor, or "satrap," who was appointed by the "Great King," as the Persian sovereign came to be called. The subject nations, or provinces, enjoyed a good deal of independence in their local affairs as long as they

paid regular tribute and furnished soldiers for the army of the Great King. In the east this tribute was paid, as of old, in produce of various kinds. But in western Asia Minor, especially in Lydia and the Greek settlements on the coast, the coinage of metal had become common by 600 B.C., and the payments were made in *coined money* (§ 93).

56. Persia becomes a Sea Power. Unlike the Assyrians the Persian rulers built up a great sea power, and we shall find later how they used it against the Greeks. They treated the Phœnicians kindly and with their coöperation constructed a war fleet in the eastern Mediterranean. Darius restored the ancient Egyptian canal connecting the Nile with the Red Sea. This enabled his vessels to sail from the Persian Gulf clear around into the Mediterranean. Roads were also built throughout the Empire, and a regular postal service was established.

The later world, especially the Greeks, often represented the Persian rulers as cruel and barbarous tyrants. This unfavorable opinion is not wholly justified. For there can be no doubt that the Persian Empire, the largest the ancient world had thus far seen, enjoyed a government more just and humane than any that had preceded it in the East.

The religious beliefs of the Persians spread among other peoples and even into Europe; but far more important than Zoroastrianism for the Western world was the religion of the Hebrews. We must therefore consider the little Hebrew kingdom among the Persian vassals in the West, which was destined to influence the history of Europe profoundly.

III. The Hebrews

57. Hebrew Invasion of Palestine (about 1400–1200 B.C.). The Hebrews were all originally nomads of the Arabian desert. For two centuries, beginning about 1400 B.C., they were gradually drifting along the west end of the Fertile Crescent into their final home in Palestine. Some of the Hebrew tribes had been slaves in Egypt, but had been induced to flee by their leader, Moses.

On entering Palestine the Hebrews found the Canaanites already dwelling there in flourishing towns with massive walls. They had comfortable houses, a well-developed government, industries, trade, and writing. The Hebrews settled on the land around the towns of the Canaanites and gradually adopted their civilization.

58. Rise of the Hebrew Kingdom (about 1025–930 B.C.). Even after the Hebrews had set up a king the old nomad customs

ANCIENT EGYPTIAN PAINTING OF A BRICKYARD WITH ASIATIC CAPTIVES ENGAGED IN BRICKMAKING (FIFTEENTH CENTURY B.C.)

The Hebrew slaves working in the Egyptian brickyards (see Exod. i, 14 and v, 6–19 must have looked like this when Moses led them forth into Asia. At the left below, the soft clay is being mixed in two piles; one laborer helps load a basket of clay on the shoulder of another, who carries it to the brick-molder, at the right above. Here a laborer empties the clay from his basket, while the molder before him fills with clay an oblong box, which is the mold. He has already finished three bricks. At the left above, a molder spreads out the soft bricks with spaces between for the circulation of air to make them dry quickly in the sun. The overseer, staff in hand, sits in the upper right-hand corner, and below him we see a workman carrying away the dried bricks, hanging from a yoke on his shoulders. Thus were made the bricks used for thousands of years for the buildings forming so large a part of the cities of the ancient world, from the Orient to Athens and Rome

were still strong; for Saul, their first king (about 1025 B.C.), had no fixed home, but lived in a tent. His successor, David, saw the importance of a strong castle as the king's permanent home. He therefore seized the Canaanite fortress of Jerusalem and made it his residence. From this new capital David extended his power[1]

[1] For a fuller account of Palestine and the Hebrews see *Ancient Times*, chap. vii.

and raised the Hebrews to a far more important position than they had ever before occupied. His people never forgot his heroic deeds as a warrior nor his skill as a poet and singer. Centuries later they revered him as the author of many of their religious songs, or "psalms."

59. Solomon and the Division of the Kingdom (about 930 B.C.). David's son, Solomon, delighted in oriental luxury and splendor. To support his extravagance he weighed down the people with heavy taxes. The discontent was so great that when Solomon died the northern tribes set up a king of their own. Thus the Hebrew nation was divided into two kingdoms before it was a century old.

There was much hard feeling between the two Hebrew realms, and sometimes fighting. Israel, as we call the northern kingdom, was rich and prosperous; its market places were filled with business; its fertile fields produced plentiful crops. Israel possessed the wealth and luxury of town life. On the other hand, Judah, the southern kingdom, was poor; her land was meager. Besides Jerusalem, the capital, she had no large and prosperous towns. Many of the people still led the wandering life of shepherds.

These two kinds of life came into conflict in many ways, but especially in religion. Every Canaanite town had for centuries worshiped its "baal," or lord, as its local god was called. The Hebrew townsmen found it very natural to worship these gods of their neighbors. They were thus unfaithful to their own Hebrew God Yahveh (or Jehovah).[1]

60. The Unknown Historian, Earliest Writer of History (Eighth Century B.C.). Thoughtful Hebrews began to feel the inequalities which are a result of town life. They saw that the rich city people had showy clothes, fine houses, and beautiful furniture, but were hard-hearted toward the poor. These social differences were not so striking in the simple nomad life of the desert. Men who resented the luxuries of the city-dwellers turned

[1] The Hebrews pronounced the name of their God "Yahveh." The pronunciation "Jehovah" began less than six hundred years ago and was due to a misunderstanding of the pronunciation of the Hebrew word "Yahveh."

fondly back to the grand old days of their shepherd wanderings on the broad reaches of the desert, where no man "ground the faces of the poor." It was a gifted Hebrew[1] of this kind who put together a simple narrative history of the Hebrew forefathers—a glorified picture of their shepherd life. He told the immortal tales of the Hebrew patriarchs, of Abraham and Isaac, of Jacob and Joseph. These, preserved to us in the Old Testament, are among the noblest literature which has survived from the past.

61. Amos and the Prophets. Amos, a simple herdsman clad in sheepskin, who came from the South, entered the towns of the wealthy North and denounced the rich for their sinful lives and disregard of the poor, whose lands they seized for debt and whose labor they profited from by enslaving them. By such bold talk Amos endangered his life, but he may be regarded as the first social reformer known in Asia. We apply the term "prophet" to the Hebrew leaders who, like Amos, exhorted people to unselfish living, brotherly kindness, and higher conceptions of God and religion.

62. The Hebrews learn to Write. The peoples of Western Asia were now abandoning the clay tablets so long in use (§§ 35, 45) and beginning to write on papyrus with Egyptian pen and ink. The Hebrews borrowed an alphabet from their neighbors (§ 84) and began to reduce their traditions, laws, and religious ideas to writing.

The rolls containing the unknown historian's tales of the patriarchs or the teachings of such men as Amos were the first books which the Hebrews produced. But literature remained the only art the Hebrews possessed. They had no painting, sculpture, or architecture, and if they needed these things they borrowed from their great neighbors, Egypt, Phœnicia, Damascus, or Assyria.

63. Destruction of the Northern Kingdom by Assyria (722 B.C.). As Amos had foreseen, the Assyrians crushed the

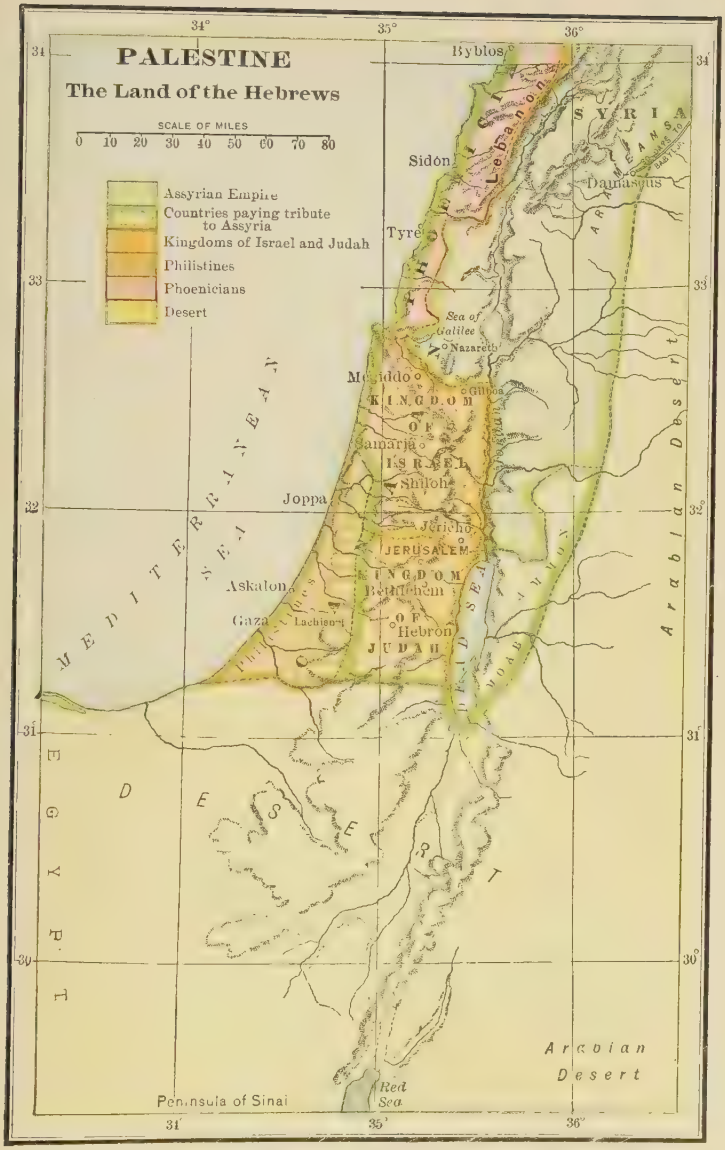
[1] Unfortunately we do not know his name, for the Hebrews themselves early lost all knowledge of his identity and finally associated the surviving fragments of his work with the name of Moses.

kingdom of Israel, and Samaria, its capital, was captured by them in 722 B.C. Many of the unhappy northern Hebrews were carried away as captives, and Israel was destroyed after having existed as a separate kingdom for a little over two centuries.

The national hopes of the Hebrews were now centered in the helpless little kingdom of Judah (see map, p. 42), which still struggled on for over a century and a quarter. More helpless than Belgium in 1914, Judah was now entangled in a great world conflict, in which Assyria was the most dangerous power. Thus far the Hebrews had been accustomed to think of their God as dwelling and ruling in Palestine only. Did he have power also over the vast world arena where all the great nations were fighting? But even if he did, was not Assur, the great god of victorious Assyria, stronger than Yahveh, the God of the Hebrews? A wonderful deliverance of Jerusalem from the cruel Assyrian army of Sennacherib (701 B.C.) enabled the great prophet Isaiah to proclaim to the Hebrews that Yahveh, their God, controlled the great world arena, where *He,* and not Assur, was the triumphant champion.

64. Destruction of the Southern Kingdom by Chaldea (586 B.C.). A century later Jerusalem rejoiced over the fall of Assyria and the destruction of Nineveh (§ 47). But it had only exchanged one foreign lord for another, for Chaldea followed Assyria in control of Palestine (§ 48). Then their unwillingness to submit brought upon the men of Judah the same fate which their kindred of Israel had suffered. In 586 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar, the Chaldean king of Babylonia, destroyed Jerusalem and carried away the people to exile in Babylonia.

65. Restoration of the Exiled Hebrews by the Persian Kings. When the victorious Cyrus entered Babylon (§ 54) the Hebrew exiles there greeted him as their deliverer. His triumph gave the Hebrews a Persian ruler. With great humanity the Persian kings allowed the exiles to return to their native land. Some had prospered in Babylonia and did not care to return. But at different times enough of them went back to Jerusalem to rebuild the city on a very modest scale and to restore the temple.


PALESTINE
The Land of the Hebrews
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80
Assyrian Empire
Countries paying tribute to Assyria
Kingdoms of Israel and Judah
Philistines
Phoenicians
Desert
Byblos
Sidon
Tyre
Damascus
SYRIA
Lebanon
Sea of Galilee
Nazareth
Megiddo
Gilboa
KINGDOM OF ISRAEL
Samaria
Shiloh
Joppa
Jericho
JERUSALEM
KINGDOM OF JUDAH
Bethlehem
Hebron
Askalon
Gaza
Lachish
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
DESERT OF EGYPT
Arabian Desert
Arabian Desert
Peninsula of Sinai
Red Sea
34°
35°
36°
31°
30°

The Hebrews were permitted to issue a code of religious laws, which formed the basis of their government. The Hebrew kingship was not revived after the Exile. The high priest at Jerusalem became the nation's leader. The Jewish State thus became a religious organization with a priest at its head.

66. The Old Testament. The returned exiles arranged and copied the ancient writings of their fathers, such as the accounts of the patriarchs by the unknown historian and the books of the prophets,—Amos, Isaiah, and others. They also added writings of their own. This collection forms the sacred Scriptures of the Jews down to the present day and that part of the Christian Bible called the Old Testament.

67. Summary of the Achievements of the Ancient Orient. What did the Ancient Orient really accomplish for the human race in the course of this long period we have been sketching? It gave the world the first highly developed *practical arts*, like metal work, weaving, glass-making, paper-making, and many other similar industries. To distribute the products of these industries among other peoples and carry on commerce, it built the earliest seagoing ships equipped with sails. It first was able to move great weights and undertake large building enterprises—large even for us of today. The early Orient, therefore, brought forth the first great group of inventions, surpassed in importance only by those of the modern world.

The Orient also gave us the earliest architecture in stone masonry, including the colonnade, the arch, and the tower or spire. It produced the earliest refined sculpture, from the colossal statues of Egypt to the finest cutting of gems. It gave us writing and the earliest alphabet. To literature it contributed the earliest examples of narrative prose, poems, historical works, and social discussions. It gave us the calendar we still use. It first introduced weights and measures and introduced business methods and trade on a large scale. It made a beginning in mathematics, astronomy, and medicine. It first produced government on a large scale, whether of a single great nation or of an empire made up of a group of nations.

Finally, in religion the East developed the earliest belief in one God and his fatherly care for all men, and laid the foundations of a religious life from which came forth the founder of the leading religion of the civilized world today. For these things, accomplished—most of them—while Europe was still undeveloped, our debt to the Orient is enormous.

68. Lack of Freedom, Political and Mental, in the Ancient Orient. There were some very important things, however, which the Orient had not yet gained. It had always accepted as a matter of course the rule of a king. It had never occurred to anyone there that the *people* should have something to say about how they should be governed. No one had ever gained the idea of a free citizen, with the feeling we call patriotism and a right to influence the selection of government officials. Liberty as we understand it was unknown, and the rule of the people, which we call "democracy," was never dreamed of in the Orient.

Just as the orientals accepted the rule of *kings* without question, so they accepted the rule of the *gods*. They thought that every storm was due to the interference of some god and that every eclipse must be the angry act of a god or demon. Hence the orientals made little inquiry into the *natural* causes of such things. In general, then, they suffered from a lack of freedom of the mind—a kind of intellectual bondage to religion and to old ideas. Under these circumstances natural science could not go very far, and religion was much darkened by superstition.

69. Transition to Europe. There were, therefore, still boundless things for mankind to do in government, in thought about the natural world, in gaining deeper insight into the wonders and beauties of nature, as well as in art, in literature, and in many other lines. *This future progress was to be made in Europe*—that Europe which we left, at the end of our first chapter, in the Late Stone Age. Therefore, we must now turn back, to follow across the eastern Mediterranean the course of rising civilization, as it passed from the Orient to our forefathers in early Europe four to five thousand years ago.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the earlier civilization of the Tigris-Euphrates valley. Compare cuneiform writing with Egyptian hieroglyphics. Why do almost all races use the decimal system? What was the Sumerian system of counting, and in what ways does it survive today? Describe the Fertile Crescent. Why do you think it played so important a part in the history of Western Asia? How do the Semites get their name? What well-known peoples belong to the Semitic race? Describe the Semitic occupation of Babylonia. Why do historians know so much more about ancient Egypt than about Babylonia? What do we mean by an *empire*? Give some modern examples. Why is a strong army more necessary for an empire than a democracy? Give the extent of the Assyrian Empire. Describe the Assyrian civilization. Find some references to Nineveh in the Bible. Why was the city of Babylon so celebrated under the Chaldean rulers? What does the Bible say about Nebuchadnezzar? What discoveries were made by the Chaldean astrologers? What have we in modern times which should remind us of Babylonia? Can you find out why the French and Germans have named the days of the week as they have and what is the origin of our names for them?

II. Who were the Aryans (see *Ancient Times*)? Tell what you know of the origin and migrations of the Indo-European peoples. Give an example of a word which has changed as the tribes of Indo-Europeans dispersed. What peoples today belong to this group? Tell what you know of the religion of Zoroaster. Do its teachings bear any resemblance to Christianity? Describe the development of the Persian Empire. How was their government arranged by Darius? What additional power did Persia develop which helped her in her conquests?

III. Give a brief account of the political history of the Hebrews. What is the origin of the first five books of the Bible? How did the Hebrew nation come to be a religious organization? What work was done on the Hebrew Scriptures in the "poet-exilic" period? What important industries today owe their origin to the Orient? What arts were begun in the Orient? What were some of the limitations of the ancient world? How did the ideas of government differ from ours today? In what way did the theory of the gods interfere with the progress of science?

BOOK II. THE GREEKS

CHAPTER IV

THE COMING OF THE GREEKS — THEIR EARLY ACHIEVEMENTS

I. The Ægean Civilization

70. How Europe gained its Higher Civilization from Egypt and Western Asia. In the first chapter of this history we followed the slow progress of mankind in Europe during the long Stone Ages. We found that in the Late Stone Age, to judge from the remains of villages on the shores of lakes and banks of rivers, the peoples of Europe had learned to cultivate fields and tame animals, to make pottery, to spin and weave (§ 8). But their ability to progress by themselves appears to have come to an end. They continued to live in a state of barbarism similar to that of many of the Indian tribes of North America before the arrival of the Spanish, French, and English. They did not learn how to write, how to work metals into useful articles, erect buildings of fine stone masonry, or construct sailing ships for trade. In short, they failed to rise to a civilized life like that we have found in the Orient.

Meanwhile, as we have seen, in Egypt and in Western Asia men who had formerly used stone weapons and been as ignorant as the men of the Late Stone Age in Europe had begun to make wonderful discoveries and inventions. They had learned to write and to use metals and make beautiful statues, furniture, and jewelry and build great and imposing structures. In the second and third chapters we studied some of the wonderful things accomplished by the Egyptians, Babylonians, and Assyrians, for it

was from them that Europe first received its higher civilization, art, and learning. We must now follow the way in which the inventions and knowledge of the eastern Mediterranean spread gradually into Europe and awakened its peoples from their barbarous slumber of the Late Stone Age. It was natural that the portion of Europe which lay nearest to Egypt should first be affected; namely, the region around the Ægean Sea.

71. The Ægean World. The Ægean Sea is like a large lake, almost completely encircled by the surrounding shores of Europe and Asia Minor, while the long island of Crete on the south lies like a breakwater, shutting off the Mediterranean (see map, p. 50). From north to south this sea is at no point more than four hundred miles in length. Its coast is deeply indented with many bays and harbors, and it is thickly sprinkled with hundreds of islands so that it is often possible to sail from one island to another in an hour or two. This sea, with its islands and the fringe of shores around it, forms a region by itself.

It enjoys a mild and sunny climate. Here and there on the bold and beautiful shores river valleys and plains descend to the water's edge. On these lowlands wheat, barley, grapes, and olives grow well, so bread, olive oil, and wine were the chief articles of food, as they are among most Mediterranean peoples today.

The Ægean people were the predecessors of the Greeks, who, as we shall see, finally swept down from the north and for a time destroyed much of the civilization which the Ægeans had developed. These predecessors of the Greeks were, like them, a gifted white race, but in no way related to them, and they spoke an entirely different language.

72. Rise of Cretan Civilization under Egyptian Influence (3000–2000 B.C.). Because of their nearness to Egypt, it was on the Ægean *islands* and not on the *mainland* of Europe that the earliest high civilization on the north side of the Mediterranean grew up. From the beginning the leader in this civilization of the Ægeans was the island of Crete. The little sun-dried-brick villages, forming the Late Stone Age settlements of Crete, received copper from the ships of the Nile by 3000 B.C. They

soon learned to make bronze, and thus the Bronze Age began in Crete. While the great pyramids of Egypt were being built the Cretan craftsmen were learning from their Egyptian neighbors the use of the potter's wheel, the closed oven for baking pottery,

Egypt Crete

EARLY STONE VASES OF CRETE AND THE EGYPTIAN ORIGINALS FROM WHICH THEY WERE COPIED

The earlier vases from Egypt (on the left) compared with those of Crete (on the right) show that the Cretan craftsmen copied the Egyptian forms in the latter part of the Pyramid Age (about 2700–2600 B.C.)

and many other important things. A system of writing was invented, but scholars have not yet learned how to read the Cretan inscriptions.

By 2000 B.C. the Cretans had become a highly civilized people. Cnossus (see map, p. 50) became the capital of their kingdom, which may have included a large part of the island. They rapidly learned the art of navigation from the Egyptians. Their ships, the earliest sailed by Europeans, were so numerous that their rulers are often called the "sea kings of Crete." Ruins of their earliest palace are still standing at Cnossus.

GREECE
IN THE FIFTH CENTURY B.C.
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 40 60 80
Longitude from Greenwich
20
21
22
23
24
36
37
38
39
40
BALKAN PE
ILLYRIA
MACEDONIA
EPIRUS
THESSALY
THRACE
CHALCIDICE
AEGEAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Aigai
Pella
Therma
Methone
Pydna
Olynthus
Potidæa
Scione
Mt. Olympus
Mt. Ossa
Mt. Pelion
Dodona
Corcyra
CORCYRA
Acheron R.
Peneus
Cynoscephalæ
Pheræ
Thebes
Pharsalus
Ambracia
Ambracian Gulf
Actium Pr.
Anactorium
Argos
PHTHIOTIS
Artemisium
LEUCAS
ACARNANIA
Stratus
Calydon
Thermopylæ
MALIS
DORIS
LOCRIS
Chalcis
ITHACA
CEPHALLENIA
Pale
Same
CORINTHIAN GULF
Crissæan Gulf
Cirrha
Delphi
Mt. Parnassus
Mt. Helicon
Thespiæ
Leuctra
Platæa
Eleusis
Megara
Patræ
ACHAIA
Elis
Erymanthus
Mt.
Cyllene
Sicyon
Corinth
Isthmus of Corinth
Mt. Hymettus
Athens
Piræus
ELIS
Peneus R.
Phlius
Nemea
Inachus
ARCADIA
Alpheus
Mantinea
Argos
Mycenæ
Tiryns
ÆGINA
SARONIC GULF
Olympia
PELOPONNESUS
Epidaurus
Lepreon
Tegea
Troezen
Hermion
ZACYNTHUS
Ithome
MESSENIA
Sparta
LACONIA
Eurotas R.
Pylos
SPHACTERIA I.
Acritas Pr.
Malea Pr.
Tænarum Pr.
CYTHERA
Cydonia

SYMPLEGADES IS.
28
29
Selymbria
Byzantium
Chalcedon
Perinthus
25
26
27
THRACE
Bosporus
THASOS
SAMOTHRACE
Aegospotami
CHERSONESUS
Lampsacus
Cyzicus
BITHYNIA
IMBROS
Sestus
Abydos
Granicus R.
40
LEMNOS
Hellespont
(Dardanelles)
Ilium (Troy)
Sigeum
TENEDOS
LAND OF TROY
Mt. Ida
Antandrus
MYSIA
Methymna
LESBOS
Mytilene
Atarneus
Pergamum
39
SCYROS
ARGINUSSÆ IS.
Cyme
Phocæa
Magnesia
Hermus R.
Sardis
CHIOS
Smyrna
LYDIA
PHRYGIA
Chios
Erythræ
Clazomenæ
Teos
Lebedos
38
ANDROS
SAMOS
Colophon
Ephesus
Samos
TENOS
ICARIA
Priene
Mœander R.
Pen. Mycale
Mycale Mt.
Miletus
Latmos Mt.
DELOS
PAROS
LEBYNTHOS
Halicarnassus
37
NAXOS
AMORGOS
Cos
Caudus
LYCIA
THERA
Lindus
36
RHODES
CARPATHUS
CRETE
Cnossus
Ida Mt.
Gortyna
Phæstus
Dicte Mt.
L.L. POATES CO., N.Y.
27
28
29
25
26

73. The Grand Age in Crete (about 1600–1500 B.C.). A few centuries of such development carried the Cretan civilization to its highest level, to what we may call its Grand Age (about 1600–1500 B.C.). The older palace of Cnossus gave way to a

TWO CRETAN VASES SHOWING PROGRESS IN THE ART OF DECORATION

larger and more splendid building with a colonnaded hall, fine stairways, and impressive open courts. Its walls were painted with fresh and beautiful scenes from daily life, full of movement and action. After learning the Egyptian art of glass-making the Cretans adorned their buildings with glazed figures. Noble vases (see accompanying illustrations) were painted or modeled in relief with designs drawn from plant life or often from the life of the sea, on which the Cretans were now more and more at home. This wonderful pottery belongs among the finest works of decorative art ever produced by any people (see also *Ancient Times*, §§ 341–342 and Figs. 136–141).

74. Cretan Civilization on the European Mainland (about 1500–1200 B.C.). Up to this time the mainland, both in Europe and in Asia Minor, had continued to lag behind the civilization of the islands. Nevertheless, the fleets of Egypt and of Crete traded with the mainland of Greece. In the plain of Argos, Ægean chieftains were sufficiently civilized after 1500 B.C. to build the massive strongholds of Tiryns and Mycenæ. They imported

THE MOUND CONTAINING THE NINE CITIES OF ANCIENT TROY (ILIUM)

When the celebrated archæologist Schliemann first visited this mound (see map, p. 50) in 1868, it was about one hundred and twenty-five feet high, and the Turks were cultivating grain on its summit. In 1870 he excavated a pit like a crater in the top of the hill, passing downward in the course of four years through nine successive cities built each on the ruins of its predecessors. At the bottom of his pit (about fifty feet deep) Schliemann found the original once bare hilltop, about seventy-five feet high, on which the men of the Late Stone Age had established a small settlement of sun-baked-brick houses about 3000 B.C. Above the scanty ruins of this Late Stone Age settlement rose, in layer after layer, the ruins of the later cities, with the Roman buildings at the top. The entire depth of fifty feet of ruins represented a period of about thirty-five hundred years from the First City (Late Stone Age) to the Ninth City (Roman) at the top. The Sixth City was that of the Trojan War and the Homeric songs

works of Cretan and Egyptian pottery and metal work, which are today the earliest tokens of a life of higher refinement on the continent of Europe (see *Ancient Times*, § 364).

75. Troy (about 3000–1200 B.C.). Along the Asiatic side of the Ægean Sea we find much earlier progress than on the European side. In the days when metal was first introduced into Crete (after 3000 B.C.) there arose at the northwest corner of Asia Minor a shabby little Late Stone Age trading station known as Troy. Though several times destroyed, as modern excavations show, it was rebuilt and finally came to control a kingdom of

WILD BULLS PICTURED BY A CRETAN GOLDSMITH AROUND TWO GOLDEN CUPS

These cups, made of gold, were found at Vaphio, not very far from Sparta, whither they were imported from Crete. The goldsmith beat out these marvelous designs with a hammer and punch over a mold, and then cut in finer details with a graving tool. His work must be ranked among the greatest works of art produced by any people

IVORY AND GOLD STATUETTE OF A CRETAN LADY. (BOSTON MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS)

The proud little figure stands with shoulders thrown far back and arms extended, each hand grasping a golden serpent, which coils about her arms to the elbow. She wears a high tiara perched daintily on her elaborately curled hair. Her dress consists of a flounced skirt and a tight bodice tapering to her slender waist. The whole forms a costume surprisingly modern. The figure is carved in ivory, while the flounces are edged with bands of gold and the belt about the waist is of the same metal. She represents either the great Cretan mother goddess or possibly only a graceful snake-charmer of the court. In any case the sculptor has given her the appearance of one of the noble ladies of his time. Even the Greek sculptor never surpassed the vitality and the winsome charm which passed from the fingers of the ancient Cretan artist into this tiny figure

considerable size in northwestern Asia Minor. About 1500 B.C. this flourishing city had become a powerful rival of Cnossus. We are more familiar with the name of Troy than with that of any other Ægean city, owing to Homer's account of its later capture by the Greeks.

76. The Hittites. In recent years scholars have become much interested in the empire of the Hittites, which stretched across Asia Minor east of Troy. A great deal is now being learned about this important people, of which formerly very little was known. It will be recalled that they are frequently mentioned in the Bible. Their empire appears to have reached its height about 1450 B.C. Perhaps for us the chief interest of the Hittites is that they discovered rich deposits of iron and were the first important distributors of a metal which was to replace copper and bronze and become one of the main foundations of our modern civilization, since without iron, and the steel derived from it, we could hardly imagine the steam engine and all the machinery upon which we have come to rely (*Ancient Times*, §§ 351–360).

AN ANCIENT HITTITE AND HIS MODERN ARMENIAN DESCENDANT

At the left is the head of an ancient Hittite as carved by an Egyptian sculptor on the wall of a temple at Thebes, Egypt, over three thousand years ago. It strikingly resembles the profile of the Armenians still living in the Hittite country, as shown in the modern portrait on the right. The strongly aquiline and prominent nose of the Hittites was also characteristic of the neighboring Semites along the eastern end of the Mediterranean, including the Canaanites

77. Summary. As we look at the map (p. 50) we see that Greece and the Ægean islands, together with Troy and Asia Minor, had, about 1500 B.C., developed into a civilized world on the north

of the Mediterranean at its eastern end. We have seen that this region received civilization from Egypt and Western Asia. Farther north, however, there were still numerous uncivilized peoples. From behind the Balkan Mountains and the Black Sea they were migrating toward the Mediterranean. Among these uncivilized Northerners were the Greeks, who were beginning to overwhelm the eastern Mediterranean. With these Northern intruders we must begin a new epoch in the history of the eastern Mediterranean world.

II. The Coming of the Greeks

78. Southward Advance of the Indo-European Races in Europe. The people whom we call the Greeks were a large group of tribes belonging to the Indo-European race. We have already followed the migrations of the Indo-European parent people until their wanderings finally ranged them all the way from northern India to the Atlantic Ocean (§ 50). While their eastern kindred were drifting southward on the east side of the Caspian, the Greeks on the west side of the Black Sea were likewise moving southward from their pastures in the grasslands along the Danube (see map, p. 104).

Driving their herds before them, with their families in rough carts drawn by horses, the rude Greek tribesmen must have come in sight of the fair pastures of northern Greece, the snowy summit of Olympus, and the blue waters of the Ægean not long after 2000 B.C.

These barbarian Greek herdsmen from the Northern grasslands had formerly led a *wandering* pastoral life like that which we have seen also among the Semites in the Southern grasslands. But now these Northern nomads were entering upon a *settled* life among the Ægean towns. As the newcomers looked out across the waters they could dimly discern the islands where flourishing towns were carrying on busy industries in pottery and metal, which the ships of Egypt and of the Ægeans were distributing far and wide.

79. Greeks take Possession of the Ægean World. Gradually their vanguard (called the Achæans) pushed southward into the Peloponnesus, and doubtless some of them mingled with the dwellers in the villages which were grouped under the walls of Tiryns and Mycenæ. But our knowledge of the Greek invasions is very meager, because the Greeks could not yet write and therefore have left no written documents to tell the story. It is evident, however, that a second wave of Greek nomads (called the Dorians) reached the Peloponnesus by 1500 B. C. and gradually subdued and absorbed their earlier kinsmen (the Achæans) as well as the Ægean townsmen, the original inhabitants of the region.

The Dorians did not stop at the southern limits of Greece, but, learning a little navigation from their Ægean predecessors, soon passed over to Crete, where they arrived by 1400 B.C. Cnossus, unfortified as it was, must have fallen an easy prey to the invading Dorians. They conquered Crete and likewise seized the other southern islands of the Ægean. Between 1300 and 1000 B. C. the several Greek tribes then established in Greece took the remaining islands and the coast of Asia Minor,—the Dorians in the south, the Ionians in the middle, and the Æolians in the north. Here a memorable Greek expedition in the twelfth century B.C., after a long siege, captured and burned the prosperous city of Troy (§ 75), a feat which the Greeks never after forgot. Thus during the thousand years between 2000 and 1000 B.C. the Greeks took possession not only of the whole Greek peninsula but likewise of the entire Ægean world.

80. Flight of the Ægeans and Fall of their Civilization (by 1200 B. C.). The northern Mediterranean all along its eastern end was thus being seized by invading peoples of Indo-European blood coming in from the north. The result was that both the Ægeans and their Hittite neighbors in Asia Minor were overwhelmed by the advancing Indo-Europeans. The Hittite Empire was crushed, and the leading families among the Ægeans fled by sea, chiefly to the south and east. In only one place were they able to land in sufficient numbers to settle and form a nation. This was on the coast of southern Palestine (see map, p. 44),

where a tribe of Cretans called Philistines founded a nation which proved very dangerous to the Hebrews. Palestine is still called after the Philistines, of which the word "Palestine" is a later form. By 1200 B.C., therefore, the splendid Ægean towns and their wonderful civilization had been completely destroyed by the incoming Greek barbarians.

The Ægean civilization, the earliest that Europe had gained, thus almost disappeared. But many of the Ægeans had not fled. Remaining in their old homes, they feebly carried on the old Ægean industries, and these formed part of the foundation on which the barbarian Greeks were destined to build up the highest civilization of the ancient world. These Ægeans mingled with their Greek conquerors and produced a mixed race, the people known to us as the Greeks of history. Although some of the Ægeans survived, they lost their language; Greek, the language of the conquerors, became the speech of this mixed race.

81. Origin of Greek Kingship and of the Greek City-State. For a long time the Greek tribes remained a barbarous people continuing to tend their flocks and herds as of yore. But gradually each tribe settled down, gave up its nomad life, and began farming, although for hundreds of years their cattle continued to form their chief source of wealth. Villages were built, and the former nomad leaders were succeeded by "kings," who ruled over the tribes.

In course of time a group of villages would grow together and merge at last into a city. It is important to note this, for the *city* became the only nation which the Greeks ever had. Each city-state was a nation; each had its own laws, its own army and gods; and each citizen felt a patriotic duty toward his own city and no other. Overlooking the city from the heights in its midst was the king's castle, the "citadel" or "acropolis."

There were soon hundreds of such Greek city-states. Indeed the entire Ægean world came to be made up of such tiny nations. It was while the Greeks were thus living in these little city-kingdoms that Greek civilization arose, especially during the period from 1100 to 750 B.C.

III. Beginnings of Higher Culture among the Greeks

82. Original Barbarism of the Greeks. The Greeks had originally invaded the Ægean world as barbarian shepherds and warriors, and it required a long time for them to get over their old rude and ignorant mode of life. For a long time they learned little about building or manufacture or art and were not even able to write. Since the Greeks could make scarcely anything for themselves, they were tempted to buy the various articles which the Phœnician merchants brought to their shores. There was much to attract the Greeks in these cargoes, which were made up of gorgeous clothing; finely decorated tableware of porcelain, bronze, and silver; toilet articles, ivory combs, and glass and alabaster perfume flasks, along with all sorts of jewelry.

83. The Phœnicians. The Phœnicians had succeeded the Egyptians and Ægeans as the chief merchants of the Mediterranean about the year 1000 B.C. and held their supremacy for several centuries. They pushed westward beyond the Ægean and were the discoverers of the western Mediterranean. Their colony of Carthage in north Africa (see map, p. 122) became the most important commercial state in the western Mediterranean, and they even planted settlements as far away as the Atlantic coast of Spain. Thus the Phœnicians did much to spread the art and industries of the East throughout the Mediterranean.

84. Phœnicians carry the First Alphabet to Europe. But the Phœnicians brought to the Greeks a crowning gift of far more value than manufactured goods. Long before 1000 B. C. the Phœnician merchants had given up the inconvenient clay tablet of Babylonia, used all along the Fertile Crescent, and were writing on imported Egyptian papyrus. They or their Semitic neighbors likewise invented a system of twenty-two signs for writing their own language. These signs were alphabetic letters, the first system containing no word-signs or syllable-signs. The Greeks soon became familiar with the Phœnician tradesman's sheets of pale-yellow paper, bearing his bills and receipts, and at last they began to write Greek words by using the Phœnician letters. Thus

I	II	III	IV	V
PHŒNICIAN	EARLY GREEK read from right to left	LATER GREEK read from left to right	LATIN	ENGLISH
𐤀	Α	Α	A	A
𐤁	Β 𐤁	Β	B	B
𐤂	↿	Γ	C G	C, G
𐤃	Δ	Δ	D	D
𐤄	𐤄	Ε	E	E
𐤅	Υ	Υ	F V	F. V. U
𐤆	Ι	Ι	...	Z
𐤇	Η	Η	H	E. H
𐤈	⊗	⊗	...	TH. PH
𐤉	𐤉	𐤉	I	I
𐤊	𐤊	Κ	...	K. KH
𐤋	⅂ ⅂	Γ Λ	L	L
𐤌	𐤌	Μ	M	M
𐤍	Μ	Ν	N	N
𐤎	Ξ	Ξ	X	X
𐤏	ο	ο	O	O
𐤐	⅂	Π	P	P
𐤑	Μ	Μ	...	S
𐤒	Φ	Φ	Q	Q
𐤓	𐤓	Ρ	R	R
𐤔	𐤔	Σ	S	S
𐤕	Τ	Τ	T	T

TABLE SHOWING HOW THE PHŒNICIAN LETTERS PASSED THROUGH GREEK AND LATIN FORMS TO REACH THEIR PRESENT ENGLISH FORMS

an alphabet appeared in Europe for the first time. By 700 B.C. the Greek potters had begun to write their names on the jars which they painted, and writing shortly afterward became common among Greeks of all classes. From the alphabet which the Phœnicians brought to the Greeks all the alphabets of the civilized world have been derived, including our own.

Along with the alphabet the equipment for using it—that is, pen, ink, and paper—for the first time came into Europe. The Greeks received all their paper from Egypt through the Phœnicians; hence the word "paper," derived from *papyrus*. The Greeks also called papyrus *byblos*, after the Phœnician city of Byblos, from which they received it. The Greek word for books is *biblia*, and hence our word "Bible." Thus the English word "Bible," originally the name of a Phœnician city, reminds us of the way in which books and paper were first introduced into Europe.

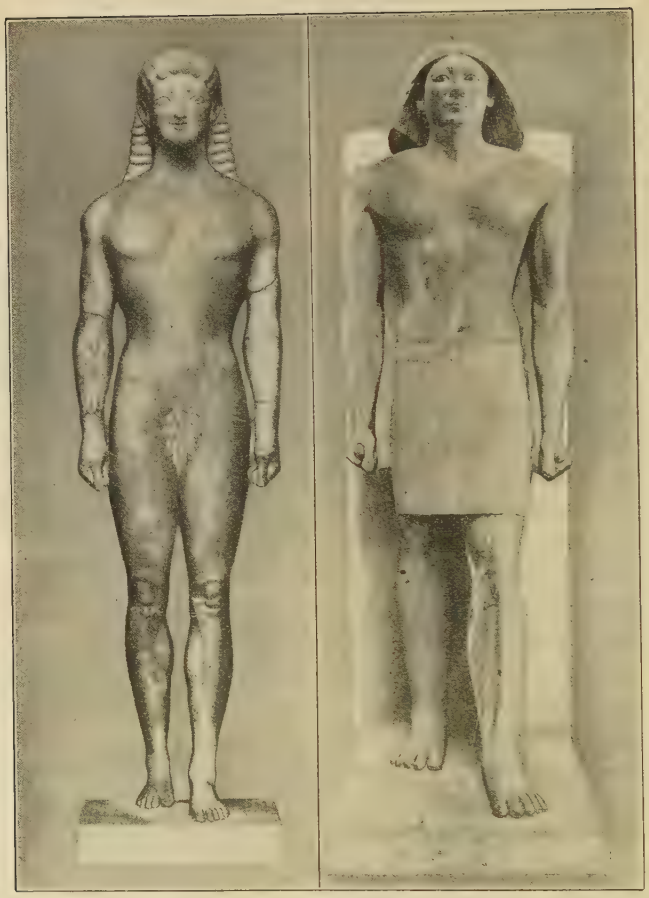
85. The Hero Songs of the Greeks. The Greeks were destined to produce many wonderful poems and plays which have been the delight of mankind ever since their day. Long before they learned to write there were bards who sang of the mighty deeds of the Greek warriors. These singers began to flourish perhaps a thousand years before the Christian Era, especially in the Greek settlements on the eastern shores of the Ægean Sea.

An Athenian Painted Vase of the Early Sixth Century B.C.

This magnificent work (over thirty inches high) was found in an Etruscan tomb in Italy (see map, p. 122), whither it had been exported by the Athenian makers in the days of Solon

Here arose a class of professional bards who graced the feasts of king and noble with poetic tales of battle and adventure recited to the music of the harp. Rolling on in stately measures these heroic songs resounded through many a royal hall—the oldest literature born in Europe. After the separate songs had greatly increased in number they were finally woven together by the bards into a connected whole called an *epic*—a great series clustering especially about the traditions of the Greek expedition against Troy. These epics were a growth of several centuries, the work of generations of singers, some of whom were still living even after 700 B.C., when they were first written down.

86. Homer. Among these ancient singers there seems to have been one of great fame whose name was Homer (see *Ancient Times*, Fig. 161). His reputation was such that he was supposed to have been the author of two great collections of poems: the Iliad, the story of the Greek expedition against Troy; and the



A *B*

EARLY GREEK STATUE AND EGYPTIAN PORTRAIT STATUE BY WHICH IT WAS INFLUENCED

The Egyptian portrait (*B*) is over two thousand years older than the Greek figure (*A*). The noble (*B*), one of those whose estate we visited on the Nile, stands in the customary posture of such figures in Egyptian art, with the arms hanging down and the left foot thrust forward. The Greek figure (*A*) stands in the same posture, with the left foot thrust forward. Both look straight ahead, as was customary in undeveloped art. The Greek figure shows clearly the influence of Egyptian sculpture

Odyssey, or the tale of the wanderings of the hero Odysseus on his return from Troy. These are the only two series of ancient Greek tales that have entirely survived; even the ancient world had its doubts about Homer's authorship of the Odyssey.

87. The Greek Gods. In the Homeric songs and in the tales about the gods, which we call myths, the Greeks heard how the gods dwelt among the clouds on the summit of Mount Olympus. There in his cloud palace Zeus, the Sky-god, with the lightning in his hand, ruled the gods like an earthly king. Apollo, the Sun-god, whose beams were golden arrows, was the deadly archer of the gods. But he also shielded the flocks of the shepherds and the fields of the plowman, and he was a wondrous musician. Above all, he knew the future ordained by Zeus, and when properly consulted at his famous shrine or oracle at Delphi he could tell anxious inquirers what the future had in store for them.

GARMENT WORN BY THE PHŒNICIANS AND LATER ADOPTED BY THE GREEKS

The Greeks loved to think of Athena, the warrior goddess, standing with shining weapons, protecting the Greek cities. But she held out her guiding hand over them also in times of peace, as the potters shaped their jars, the smiths wrought their metal, or the women wove their wool. These three then, Zeus, Apollo, and Athena, became the leading divinities of the Greek world.

There was, moreover, a group of great gods, each controlling some special realm. In a brazen palace deep under the waters Poseidon ruled the sea. The ancient Earth Mother, whom they called Demeter, brought forth the produce of the soil. At the same time they looked also to another earth god, Dionysus, for the fruit of the grapevine, and they rejoiced in the wine which he gave them. Hermes was the messenger of the gods, with winged

feet, doing their bidding; but he was also the god of trade and commerce. The goddess of love the Greeks called Aphrodite.

88. Human Traits of the Gods. All these divinities the Greeks pictured in *human* form, possessing human traits, both good and bad. Homer describes to us the family quarrels between the august Zeus and his wife Hera, just as such things must have occurred in the household life of the Greeks. The gods were not likely, therefore, to require anything better in the conduct of men.

One reason why the Greeks did not yet think that the gods required right conduct of men was their notion of life after death. They believed that all men passed at death into a gloomy kingdom beneath the earth (Hades), where the fate of good men did not differ from that of the wicked. As a special favor of the gods, the heroes, men of mighty and godlike deeds, were granted immortality and permitted to enjoy a life of endless bliss in the beautiful Elysian Fields or in the Islands of the Blest, somewhere far to the west, toward the unexplored ocean.

89. Summary of the Age of the Kings. In this period the Greeks, after conquering their predecessors the Ægeans and largely destroying their higher civilization, gradually changed from a wandering shepherd life to a settled life in and around small towns. Thus arose the little *city-kingdoms*, the most important form of organized life among the Greeks. At the same time, with the rise of the hero songs and the introduction of an oriental alphabet, the Greeks produced the earliest European literature which has survived. In general, then, the Age of the Kings saw the barbarian Greek shepherds forming civilized states, with government, writing, and literature (1000–750 B.C.).

IV. Greek Colonies and Business

90. Greek Colonization (750–600 B.C.). The Greeks gradually became traders and began to establish colonies about the year 750 B.C. Many of those who had been trying to gain a living by cultivating the land emigrated to the new colonies. By 600 B.C. the Greeks had established settlements all around the Black Sea.

Here they found broad grainfields along the lower Danube and got possession of the iron mines formerly worked by the Hittites (§ 76). Greek towns were also founded in the delta of the Nile.

91. Greek Settlements in Italy. Looking westward from the western coast of Greece the seamen could faintly perceive the shore of Italy, only fifty miles distant. When they had once crossed to it they coasted around Sicily and far beyond. Here was a new world. Although the Phœnicians were already there, its discovery was as momentous for the Greeks as that of America for later Europe.

By 750 B.C. Greek colonies were founded in this new Western world, and within a century they were scattered along the coast of southern Italy to a point north of Naples. Hence this region of southern Italy came to be known as "Great Greece" (see map, p. 122). As the Greeks were by this time superior in civilization to all the native dwellers in Italy, *the civilized history of that great peninsula begins with the settlement of the Greeks there.* They were the first to bring into Italy such things as writing, literature, architecture, and art.

The Greek colonists also crossed over to fertile Sicily, where they drove out the Phœnician trading posts except at the western end of the island. Syracuse, at its southeast, became very soon the most cultured, as well as the most powerful, city of the Greek world. At Massilia (Marseilles), on the coast of later France, the Western Greeks founded a town which controlled the trade up the Rhone valley. In this way the Greeks expanded till their settlements stretched from the Black Sea along the north shore of the Mediterranean almost to the Atlantic.

92. Greek Business and Factories. Before long the merchant fleets of the Greeks were making their way along the coasts of the Mediterranean, bearing to distant towns their metal work, woven goods, and beautiful pottery. To meet the demand, the Greek workmen were obliged to enlarge their shops, which had formerly done no more than supply the needs of a single estate. Unable to find the necessary free workmen to help him, the proprietor

bought slaves, if he could afford it, and trained them to carry on the manufacturing. The slaves were commonly the inhabitants of towns that had been conquered in the wars that went on constantly. The former little shops in this way grew into factories with a score of hands. Henceforth slave labor became and continued an important element in Greek life.

In Athens, especially, the factories grew to a size hitherto unknown in the Greek world and filled a large district of the city. Beautiful vases were made, which were often placed in the tombs of the dead. They are found by modern excavators in places as far from each other as the interior of Asia Minor, the Nile delta, and central Italy.

Ships had to be made larger and, in addition to oars, sails—invented long before by the Egyptians—were used. The new vessels were so heavy that they could no longer be drawn up on the shore, so that harbors had to be built for them.

The protection of these merchant ships demanded more effective warships, and the distinction gradually arose between a "man-of-war," or battleship, and a "merchantman." Warships must be independent of the wind, and hence they were still driven by oars. The oarsmen were now arranged in three rows, and the power of an old "fifty-oar" was thus multiplied by three without essentially increasing the ship's size. Battleships having the oars in three rows were called "triremes." These improvements were widely used by 500 B.C.

93. Adoption of Coinage by the Greeks (Early Seventh Century B.C.). Meantime Greek business life had entered upon a new epoch, due to the introduction of coined money. Not long after 700 B.C. the kings of Lydia in Asia Minor, following oriental custom, cut up silver into lumps of a fixed weight. These they began to stamp with some symbol of the king or State, to show that the State guaranteed their value. These pieces formed the earliest-known coins (see accompanying illustration).

This great convenience was quickly adopted by the Greeks. The Athenians began to use as their commonest coin a bit of silver weighing the hundredth part of a Babylonian *mina* (our

pound). The *drachma*, as it was called, was worth from eighteen to twenty cents. It still survives in large sections of Europe as the French *franc*. The purchasing power of a drachma was very much greater in ancient times than in our day. For example, a

SPECIMENS ILLUSTRATING THE BEGINNING OF COINAGE

1, both sides of a Lydian coin (about 550 B.C.); *2*, both sides of a coin of the Greek island of Chios (500 B.C.), showing how the Greeks followed the Lydian model; *3*, both sides of a Carian coin (650–550 B.C.), an example of the square stamp; *4*, both sides of a four-drachma piece of Athens, (sixth century B.C.), bearing head of the goddess Athena and an owl with olive branch (square stamp). The inscription contains the first three letters of "Athens." These coins are all rough lumps of silver (such as were long before used in the Orient, § 39), flattened by the pressure of the stamp

sheep cost one drachma, an ox five drachma, and a landowner with an income of five hundred drachmas ($100) a year was considered a wealthy man.

94. Rise of a Capitalistic Class. Greek wealth had formerly consisted of lands and flocks, but now men began to accumulate capital in *money*. Loans were made, and the custom of lending money at interest came in from the Orient. The usual rate was 18 per cent yearly. Men who could never have hoped to get ahead as farmers were now growing rich. There arose a prosperous industrial and commercial *middle class*, which demanded a voice in the government.

95. The Greeks never united into a Single Nation. The Greek city-states never united into a single great and powerful nation. This was in part because the country was so cut up by deep bays and divided by mountain ranges that the various towns were somewhat separated from one another; partly because each of the Greek towns had its own peculiar habits, its dialect, and its own local gods. But in some cases a number of formerly small independent city-states were brought together and formed such large and important city-states as Athens, Sparta, Argos, and Thebes. In this way the people of a considerable territory regarded themselves as Athenians or Spartans.

96. The Tyrants. The kings began to disappear about 750 B.C., and for a time the government in most Greek cities was under the control of a group of nobles. When the nobles fell out with one another, "tyrants," as the Greeks called them, arose. These were not necessarily tyrants in our sense of the word, but leaders, or "bosses," who managed to get the support of the people and so become kings in all but name. They often helped the people to secure their rights and did much to beautify the cities over which they ruled.

Civilization flourished under the tyrants. This is illustrated by the fact that in the early sixth century B.C. Thales of Miletus was the first Greek to predict an eclipse of the sun and to conclude that the planets and stars were governed by natural laws, and not by the whims of the gods. Nevertheless there was a natural prejudice against the tyrants, and it was generally regarded as a heroic act to kill one if he became unpopular.

97. Influences leading toward Greek Unity. We have already noticed the tendencies which kept the Greek states apart. There were, on the other hand, influences which tended to make them feel that they really formed in a way a single people. Among such influences were the athletic contests. These finally came to be held at stated seasons in honor of the gods. As early as 776 B.C. such contests were celebrated as public festivals at Olympia.[1]

[1] These Olympic games have been revived in modern times as an international project.

It became the custom to hold the Olympic games every four years, and they finally aroused the interest and participation of all Greece.

Religion also became a strong influence toward unity, because there were some gods at whose temples *all* the Greeks worshiped. The different city-states therefore organized several religious councils, made up of representatives from the various Greek cities concerned. These councils were perhaps the nearest approach to representative government ever devised in the ancient world. The most notable of them were the council for the control of the Olympic games, another for the famous sanctuary of Apollo at Delphi (§ 87), and the council for the great annual feast of Apollo in the island of Delos.

The representatives of the cities who attended these councils spoke the various Greek dialects at their meetings. They could understand each other, however, and their common language helped to bind together the people of the many different Greek cities. A sentiment of unity also arose under the influence of the Homeric songs (§§ 86–87), with which every Greek was familiar,—a common inheritance depicting all the Greeks united against the Asiatic city of Troy.

98. Barbarians and Hellenes. Bound together by these common interests the Greeks gained a feeling of race unity, which set them apart from other races. They called all men not of Greek blood "barbarians," but this was not originally a term of reproach for the non-Greeks. They gradually came to call themselves "Hellenes" and found pleasure in the belief that they had all descended from a common ancestor called Hellen. Connected with this word is also the name "Hellas," often applied to Greece. But it should be clearly understood that this new designation did not represent a Greek *nation* or state, but only the *group* of Greek-speaking peoples or states, often at war with one another. The most fatal defect in Greek character was the inability of the various states to forget their local differences and jealousies and to unite in a common federation or great nation including all Greeks.

V. Reforms of Solon and Clisthenes

99. Development of Athens; Solon. Of the Greek cities Athens was to become by far the most important and was to make a name for itself which should never be forgotten. Its first great citizen was Solon, who was in 594 B.C. given full power to introduce needed reforms. Although a noble himself, he reduced the oppressive power of his fellow nobles, relieved the peasants of the heavy mortgages that lay on their lands, and set a limit to the amount of land a noble might hold. He made it possible for anyone, however poor, to have his lawsuit tried before a jury of citizens selected by lot. Only the nobles were permitted to hold the higher offices, but the peasants could hold the lower ones, and all free citizens were assured a vote in the assembly of the people. Solon is the first Greek statesman about whom we have any reliable information.

100. Clisthenes. In spite of Solon's reforms a tyrant, Pisistratus, gained control of Athens for a time. Although he ruled wisely and with success, the prejudice of the people against tyrants was so great that when he died, in 528 B.C., one of his sons was killed and the other forced to flee. Clisthenes, a second Solon, broke up the old class divisions and established election districts in which the nobles were always bound to be in the minority. He also arranged that once a year the people might declare any prominent citizen dangerous and banish him for ten years. The names were written on bits of pottery, instead of paper ballots such as we use today. The name of this pottery ballot was *ostracon*, and to ostracize a man meant originally to banish him. These measures made it difficult for anyone to succeed in making himself tyrant. They also tended to make Athens a *democracy*; that is, a government in which the power lies in the hands of the people at large.

101. Expansion of Sparta. Meantime the future rival of Athens, Sparta, also had greatly increased in power. Long before 500 B.C. the Spartans had forced the neighboring states into a combination, called the "Spartan League," which included nearly

the whole of the Peloponnese. As the leader of this league Sparta was the most powerful state in Greece. It had no industries, and it therefore did not possess the prosperous commercial class which had elsewhere done so much to overthrow the nobles and bring about the rise of the tyrants. Sparta was also opposed to the rule of the people and looked with a jealous eye on the rising democracy of Athens.

QUESTIONS

I. How did Europe first receive metal? Where and how did higher forms of civilization begin in Europe? Describe the physical aspects of the Ægean world. Why did civilization develop in Crete earlier than in Europe? Describe the art and industries of Crete. Had Europeans ever had sailing ships before? What were the earliest influences of Cretan civilization on the mainland? What contribution did the Hittites make to the advancement of civilization?

II. To what race do the Greeks belong? Describe the Greek tribesmen when they first appeared in northern Greece. Describe the invasion of the Ægean world by the Greeks. What became of Ægean civilization? Who were the Philistines? Describe the origin of the Greek city-states.

III. Describe the life of the early Greeks. How did they gradually improve their ways of living? With what civilizing influences did they come in contact when they settled in the Ægean? Tell what you know of the Phœnicians. How was the Phœnician alphabet adopted by the Greeks? Describe the songs of adventure so popular with the Greeks. Who was their most famous bard? What celebrated poems is he supposed to have written? Describe the gods of the Greeks. Why are they sometimes called *anthropomorphic*?

IV. Where did the Greeks found colonies? Tell something of the development of trade and business among the Greeks. When and where was coined money first used by them? Why did the Greeks fail to unite into a nation? Were there any national bonds among them?

V. Describe the reforms of Solon; of Clisthenes. Why were the sons of Pisistratus not permitted to rule? What was the Spartan League?

CHAPTER V

THE REPULSE OF PERSIA AND THE RISE OF THE ATHENIAN EMPIRE

I. The Repulse of the Persians

102. The Persian Advance to the Ægean (546 B.C.). In order to understand the story of Greece we must now recall that in the year 546 B.C. Cyrus the Persian marched westward to the Ægean (§ 54). The vast Persian Empire which he founded thus became a close neighbor of the Greeks directly on their east in Asia Minor. In the midst of their remarkable progress in civilization the Ionian Greek cities of Asia Minor suddenly lost their liberty and actually became subjects of Persia.

As we have already learned, the Persians possessed a high degree of culture and an enlightened government, but Persian supremacy in Greece would nevertheless have seriously checked the advance of the Greeks in civilization. There seemed little prospect that the tiny Greek states, even if they united, could successfully resist the vast oriental empire, controlling as it did all the countries of the ancient East, which we have been studying. Nevertheless the Ionian cities revolted against their Persian lords.

103. First Persian Invasion of Europe. During the struggle with Persia which followed this revolt the Athenians sent twenty ships to aid their Ionian kindred. This act brought a Persian army of revenge, under Darius, into Europe. The long march of the Persians across the Hellespont and through Thrace cost them many men, and the fleet which accompanied the Persian advance was wrecked in trying to round the high promontory of Mount Athos (492 B.C.). This advance into Greece was therefore abandoned for a plan of invasion by water across the Ægean.

104. Second Persian Invasion. In the early summer of 490 B.C. a considerable fleet of transports and warships bearing the Persian host sailed across the Ægean and entered the straits between Eubœa and Attica. The Persians landed on the shores of Attica, in the Bay of Marathon (see map, p. 50), intending to march on Athens.

All was excitement and confusion among the Greek states. The defeat of the revolting Ionian cities had made a deep impression throughout Greece. Now this Persian foe was camping behind the hills only a few miles northeast of Athens.

105. Miltiades and the Battle of Marathon (490 B.C.). The Persian forces probably numbered about twenty thousand men, but at the utmost the Athenians could not put more than half this number into the field. Fortunately for them, there was among their generals a skilled commander named Miltiades. As the citizen-soldiers of Attica flocked to the city at the call to arms, Miltiades was able to induce the leaders not to await the assault of the Persians at Athens but to march across the peninsula and block the Persian advance among the hills overlooking the eastern coast and commanding the road to the city.

Unable to entice the Greeks from the advantageous position they had chosen at Marathon, the Persians at length attempted to force their way along the road toward Athens. The Athenians bravely faced the storm of Persian arrows and managed to attack the enemy in such a manner that the Asiatic army crumbled in confusion. The Persian bows proved less effective than the Greek spears. The invaders were routed and fled to their ships, leaving over six thousand dead upon the field, while the Athenians lost less than two hundred men. When the Persian commander sailed around the Attic peninsula and appeared with his fleet before the port of Athens, he found it unwise to attempt a landing, for the victorious Athenian army was already encamped beside the city.

106. Rise of Themistocles. Among the men who stood in the Athenian ranks at Marathon was Themistocles, the ablest statesman in Greece. He was convinced of the necessity of building up

a strong navy, and had therefore long been trying to show the Athenians that the only way in which Athens could hope to meet the assault of Persia was by making herself undisputed mistress of the sea. He found it hard to convince his fellow citizens, but the danger of a new Persian attack led them to change their minds.

MOUND RAISED AS A MONUMENT TO THE FALLEN GREEKS AT MARATHON

The mound is nearly fifty feet high. Excavations undertaken in 1890 disclosed beneath it the bodies of the one hundred and ninety-two Athenian citizens who fell in the battle

107. Xerxes' Attack; Creation of an Athenian Navy. Darius the Great, whose remarkable reign we have studied (§ 55), died without having avenged the defeat of his army at Marathon. His son and successor, Xerxes, therefore took up the unfinished task. The Greeks made ready to meet the new Persian assault. They soon learned that Xerxes' commanders were making a canal behind the promontory of Athos, to secure a short cut and thus to avoid all risk of such a wreck as had overtaken their former fleet in rounding this dangerous point. When the news of this operation reached Athens, Themistocles was at last able to induce the Athenian Assembly to build a great fleet of about a hundred

and eighty triremes. The Greeks were then ready for the first time to oppose the Persian advance by both sea and land.

The design of Themistocles was to meet the Persian fleet *first* and fight a decisive naval battle as soon as possible. If victorious, the Greek fleet commanding the Ægean would then be able to sail up the eastern coast of Greece and threaten the communications and supplies of the Persian army. An effort to unite *all* the Greek states against the Persian invasion was not successful. Indeed, Themistocles was able to induce the Spartans to join with Athens only on condition that Sparta be given command of the allied Greek fleets.

108. Battles of Thermopylæ and Artemisium (480 B.C.). In the summer of 480 B.C. the Asiatic army was approaching the pass of Thermopylæ, just opposite the westernmost point of the island of Eubœa (see map, p. 50). Their fleet moved with them. It is supposed that the Asiatic host numbered over two hundred thousand men, with as many more camp followers, while the enormous fleet contained about a thousand vessels, of which two thirds were warships. Of the latter the Persians lost a hundred or two in a storm, leaving about five hundred warships available for action. The Spartan king Leonidas led some five thousand men to check the Persians at the pass of Thermopylæ while the Greek fleet of less than three hundred triremes was endeavoring to strike the Persian navy at Artemisium, on the northern coast of Eubœa. This brought the land and sea forces of both contestants face to face.

After several days' delay the Persians advanced to attack the Greeks on both land and sea. All day the dauntless Leonidas held the pass of Thermopylæ against the Persian host. Meantime the Persians were executing two flank movements by land and by sea. The flank movement by sea failed, but the flanking of the pass was successful. Taken in front and rear, the heroic Leonidas died fighting at the head of his small force, which the Persian host completely annihilated. The death of Leonidas stirred all Greece. With the defeat of the Greek land forces and the advance of the Persian army, the Greek fleet, seriously damaged, was obliged to withdraw to the south. It took up its position in the Bay of

Salamis (see map, p. 52), while the main army of the Spartans and their allies was drawn up on the Isthmus of Corinth, the only point at which the Greek land forces could hope to make another stand.

109. Persians invade Attica and burn Athens. As the Persian army moved southward from Thermopylæ the undaunted Themistocles gathered together the Athenian population and carried them in transports to the little islands of Salamis and Ægina and the shores of Argolis. The courage of many of the Greeks at Salamis was shaken as they looked northward, where the far-stretching Persian host darkened the coast road, while to the south they could see the Asiatic fleet drawn up off the port of Athens. High over the Attic hills the flames of the burning Acropolis showed red against the somber masses of smoke that told them that the homes of the Athenians lay in ashes.

110. Battle of Salamis (480 B.C.). On the heights overlooking the Bay of Salamis, Xerxes, seated on his throne, in the midst of his brilliant oriental court, watched the battle. The Persian ships found themselves at a great disadvantage in attempting to reach the Greek vessels, which were crowded in the narrow waters between the island of Salamis and the mainland. The huge Asiatic fleet soon fell into confusion before the Greek attack. The combat lasted the entire day, and when darkness settled on the Bay of Salamis the Persian fleet had been almost annihilated. The Athenians were now masters of the sea. By the creation of its powerful fleet Athens had saved Greece, and Themistocles had shown himself the greatest of Greek statesmen.

111. Retreat of Xerxes and Expulsion of the Persians. Xerxes was now troubled lest he should be cut off from Asia by the victorious Greek fleet. With many losses from disease and with insufficient supplies he retreated to the Hellespont and withdrew into Asia, leaving his able general Mardonius with an army of perhaps fifty thousand men to winter in Thessaly.

But the following spring the Greeks were able to defeat Mardonius at Platæa and expel the remnants of Xerxes' vast army from Greece.

Not only European Greece but Ionia too was saved from Asiatic despotism. For the Greek triremes crossed over to Asia Minor and drove out or destroyed the remnants of the Persian fleet. The Athenians now seized the Hellespont and held the crossing from Asia into Europe. Thus the grandsons of those Greeks who had seen Persia advance to the Ægean (§ 54) blocked her further progress in the West and thrust her back from Europe. Indeed, no Persian army ever set foot in European Greece again.

II. The Rise of the Athenian Empire

112. Rivalry of Athens and Sparta. As the Athenians returned to look out over the ashes of what was once Athens, amid which rose the smoke-blackened heights of the naked Acropolis, they began to realize the greatness of their deliverance and the magnitude of their victory. With the not too ready help of Sparta they had crushed the ancient power of Asia. They felt themselves masters of the world. The past seemed narrow and limited. A new and greater Athens dawned upon their vision.

This was all very different from the feeling of the stolid Spartans. Sparta was little more than a large military club or camp. Living in a group of straggling villages, which could hardly be called a city, greatly attached to their own old customs, proud of their barbarous habits, still using only iron money, and refusing to build a wall around their city, the old-fashioned Spartans looked with misgivings upon the larger world which was opening to Greek life.

Greece therefore fell into two camps as it were: Sparta, the home of tradition and privileges granted only to the military class; Athens, the champion of progress and the leadership of the people. Accordingly the brief union of Athens and Sparta against the Persians was followed by a fatal rivalry between these two leading states, which continued for another century and finally cost the Greeks the leadership of the ancient world.

113. The Delian League. Immediately after the repulse of the Persians the Athenians formed a league with the Greek cities of

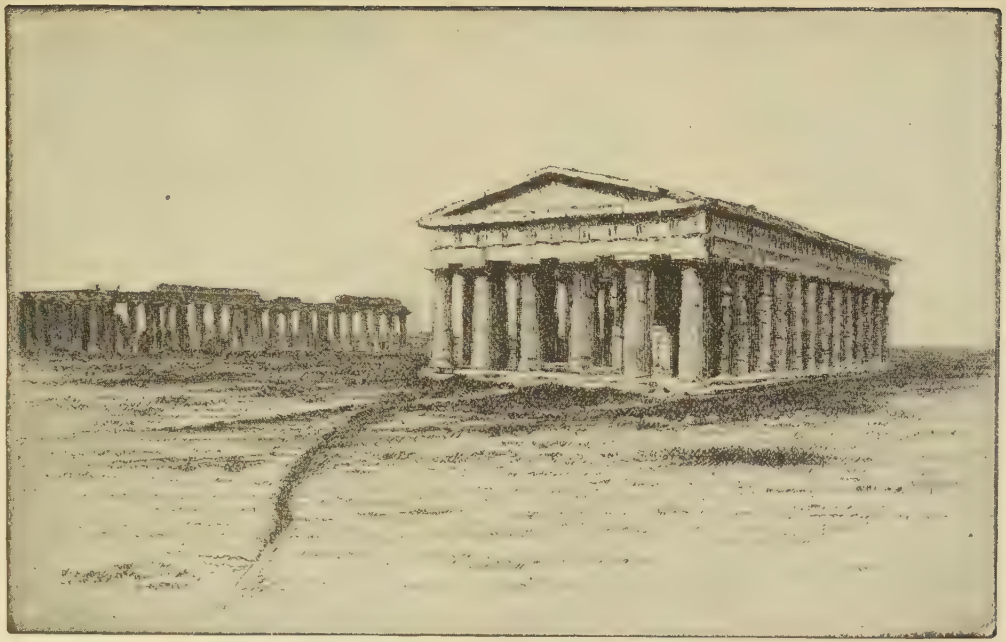
Ionia and the islands. The members were to contribute money or ships, and Athens was to have command of the fleet, which could be used in case of a new attack by the Persian hosts. The treasury, in charge of Athens, was on the island of Delos, and hence the name of the new union was the Delian League. It seemed to the suspicious and jealous Sparta that this was a step toward a powerful Athenian empire.

114. Athens a Democracy. A council of five hundred paid members had grown up in Athens and played a great part in the

An Ancient Greek Ballot

After the repulse of the Persians Themistocles became unpopular, and the ungrateful Athenians voted him down and sent him into exile. The cut shows the name of Themistocles scratched on a fragment of a pottery jar (*ostracon*, § 100) by some citizen of the six thousand who secured the ostracism of Themistocles in 472 B.C., or it may have served a similar purpose in an earlier but unsuccessful attempt to ostracize him

government. It was created by the poorer classes in their conflict with the nobles in order to form a government *by the people* which we call *democracy*. To enable the poorest citizens to serve on the juries established by Solon, a law was passed paying jurors for their services. The citizen courts and the Assembly finally gained the power to enact all the new laws. Moreover, all the higher offices in the state were, with the exception of the general in chief (who was elected), to be chosen by lot. This gave every citizen a chance to be an officeholder. The system was certainly democratic, but it did not work very smoothly. There was constant friction between the common people and the nobles, and sometimes fighting. The people were often untrue to their best leaders, and they even ostracized Themistocles, the ablest statesman in



GREEK TEMPLES AT PÆSTUM IN SOUTHERN ITALY

At Pæstum (Greek, *Poseidonia*), the site of one of the early Greek colonies near Naples, there are the ruins of three Greek temples. The temple of Neptune (Poseidon) is the finest of the group

Greece. In 460 B.C. a handsome and brilliant young citizen named Pericles was elected general and was able for thirty years to play the rôle of boss in Athens. He was one of the most successful rulers in the world's history.

115. War with Sparta. Pericles favored a policy of hostility toward Sparta, and induced the people to construct two long walls from Athens down to the shore so that they could reach the port of the Piræus without danger from a besieging army. The long war which finally broke out between Athens and Sparta dragged on for fifteen years and greatly weakened both cities. Moreover, Athens lost a fleet trying to protect Egypt, which had revolted from the Persian kings. When peace was concluded with both Sparta and the Persians it proved to be only a truce, for still more disastrous conflicts were to follow until the Athenian power was broken. But Athens is not remembered on account of the fighting that was going on almost continuously, but for her writers, philosophers, and artists, and now we may turn to this more cheerful side of her history.

QUESTIONS

I. Compare the civilization and resources of Greece and Persia at the time of the first Persian invasion. How did Persia happen to be so close a neighbor to Greece? What were the results of the first two Persian invasions? Describe briefly the famous battle of Marathon. How far is Marathon from Athens? What circumstances induced the Athenians to build a fleet? Describe briefly the third Persian invasion.

II. Contrast Athens and Sparta at the time of the expulsion of the Persians. How did Athens develop into a powerful empire? Why was the government of Athens called a democracy?

CHAPTER VI

ATHENS IN THE AGE OF PERICLES

I. Houses, Education, and Science

116. The New Athens: Athenian Houses. The hasty rebuilding of Athens after the Persians had burned it did not produce any noticeable changes in the houses, nor were there any of great size or beauty. The one-story front of even a wealthy man's house was simply a blank wall, usually of sun-dried brick. The door, commonly the only opening in the windowless front, led into a court open to the sky and surrounded by a porch with columns adopted from Egypt. Here in the mild climate of Greece the family could spend much of their time as in a sitting room. From the court a number of doors opened into a living room, sleeping rooms, dining rooms, storerooms, and a tiny kitchen.

The house lacked all conveniences. There was no chimney, and the smoke from the kitchen fire, though intended to drift up through a hole in the roof, often choked the room or floated out of the door. In winter gusty drafts filled the house, for many entrances were without doors. Glass windowpanes were still unknown. The only stove was a pan of burning charcoal. Lacking windows, the ground-floor rooms depended for light entirely on the doors opening on the court. At night the dim light of an olive-oil lamp was all that was available. There was no plumbing or piping of any kind in the house, no drainage, and consequently no sanitary arrangements. The water supply was brought in jars by slaves from the nearest well or spring. The simplicity and bareness of the house itself were in noticeable contrast with the beautiful furniture and pottery which the Greek craftsmen were now producing.

THE PARTHENON

After the restored model in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City

The city was about a mile wide and somewhat more in length. The streets were merely lanes or alleys, narrow and crooked, winding between the bare mud-brick walls of the low houses. There was neither pavement nor sidewalk, and a stroll through the town after a rain meant wading through the mud. All the household rubbish and garbage were thrown directly into the street, and there was no system of street-cleaning or of sewerage.

117. Costume. The gorgeous oriental raiment of earlier days had now largely disappeared in Greece, as bright colors for men did among us in the days of our great-great-grandfathers. The women were less inclined to give up the old finery; unhappily they had little to think about but clothes and housekeeping. For Greek citizens still kept their wives in the background; they were mere housekeepers, and it was not deemed necessary to provide schools for the girls.

118. Schools. When a boy was old enough he was sent to school in charge of an old slave called a *pedagogue* (a Greek word meaning "leader of a child"). There were no schools maintained by the State. School was conducted in his own house by some poor citizen, who was much looked down upon. He received his pay from the parents. Besides studying music and learning to read and write, the pupil memorized many passages from the old poets, and here and there a boy with a good memory could repeat the entire Iliad and Odyssey. On the other hand, there was no instruction in mathematics, geography, or natural science.

119. Athletics. If the wealth and station of his family permitted, the Athenian youth spent much of his time on the new athletic fields. On the north of Athens was the field known as the Academy. There was a similar athletic ground, called the Lyceum, on the east of the city. The later custom of holding courses of lectures in these places resulted in giving the words "academy" and "lyceum" the associations they now possess for us. The chief events in the famous athletic contests at Olympia (§ 97) were boxing, wrestling, running, jumping, casting the javelin, and throwing the disk. To these, other contests were afterward added, especially chariot and horseback races.

120. Higher Education offered by the Sophists. On the other hand, there were serious-minded young men who spent their time on other things. Many a bright youth who had finished his music, reading, and writing at the old-fashioned private school annoyed his father by insisting that such schooling was not enough and by demanding money to pay for a course of lectures

A *B*

GREEK BOY PULLING OUT A THORN (*A*) AND A LATER CARICATURE OF THE THORN PULLER (*B*)

The graceful figure of the slender boy so seriously striving to remove the thorn was probably wrought not long after the Persian wars. It was very popular in antiquity, as it has also been in modern times. The comical caricature (*B*) in clay (terra cotta), though it has lost one foot, is a delightful example of Greek humor expressed in parody

delivered by more modern private teachers called *Sophists*, a class of new and clever lecturers who wandered from city to city.

In the lectures of the Sophists a higher education was for the first time open to young men. In the first place, the Sophists taught rhetoric and oratory with great success; fathers who had no gift of speech had the pleasure of seeing their sons practiced public speakers. It was through the teaching of the Sophists also that the first successful writing of Greek prose began. In addition

they taught mathematics and astronomy, and the young men of Athens for the first time began to learn a little natural science.

When a father of that day found in the hands of his son a book by one of the great Sophists which began with a statement questioning the existence of the gods, the new teachings seemed impious. The old-fashioned citizen could at least vote for the banishment of such impious teachers and burning of their books.

121. Progress in Science and Medicine. Science had begun to be cultivated in the Ionian cities before the Persian wars (§ 96). In southern Italy a celebrated philosopher, Pythagoras, founded a school of philosophy and carried on the study of geometry. Among the sciences medicine, perhaps, made the most progress. In the first place, the Greek physicians rejected the older belief that disease was caused by evil demons and endeavored to find the natural causes of the ailment. To do this they sought to understand the organs of the body. They discovered that the brain was the organ of thought, but the arterial system, the circulation of the blood, and the nervous system were still entirely unknown. The greatest physician of the time was Hippocrates, who became the founder of scientific medicine.

122. Progress in History-Writing; Herodotus. Just at the close of Pericles' life the historian Herodotus,—a great traveler,—who had long been engaged on a history of the world, finally published his famous work. The story was so told that the glorious leadership of Athens would be clear to all Greeks and they would see that to her they owed their deliverance from Persia. Throughout Greece it created a deep impression, and so tremendous was its effect on the Athenians that they voted Herodotus a reward of ten talents—some twelve thousand dollars.

II. Art and Literature

123. Phidias and the Parthenon. The Greeks now began to produce wonderful painters and architects, and sculptors such as the world had never seen. It is they who, with the writers, have made Athens famous through the centuries since Pericles began

the reconstruction of the Parthenon, the most celebrated building in the world. The Parthenon was the temple of the patron goddess Athena (§ 87) and stood on the Acropolis. It had been destroyed by the Persians and was now rebuilt on a scale of beauty and magnificence hitherto unknown in the Greek world. Phidias, the greatest of the Athenian sculptors, designed the famous frieze, a band of carved marble reliefs extending clear around the building. This portrayed the people of Athens moving in a stately religious procession. The figures of the men and horses are of unrivaled beauty and grace. Inside the new temple rose the gigantic figure of the goddess Athena, wrought by the masterly hand of Phidias in gold and ivory.

124. The Drama; Æschylus. In spite of the teachings of the Sophists, most of the Athenians still reverently believed in their gods, who they thought had raised Athens to the powerful position that she occupied. They listened with admiration and awe to the dramas of their first great playwright, Æschylus. He had fought against the Persians, and in his tragedy *The Persians* he told his fellow citizens of the mighty purpose of the gods in saving Hellas from the Asiatic invaders.

We can picture a citizen in Pericles' time skirting the base of the Acropolis and reaching the theater to find the people already crowding the entrance. The play would seem strange enough to us, for there is little or no scenery; and the actors, who are always *men*, wear grotesque masks, a survival of old days. The narrative is largely carried on in song by the chorus, but this is varied by the dialogue of the actors, and the whole is not unlike an opera.

125. Sophocles. A play of Sophocles is on, and the citizen's neighbor in the next seat leans over to tell him how as a lad many years ago he stood on the shore of Salamis, whither his family had fled, and as they looked down upon the destruction of the Persian fleet this same Sophocles, then a boy of sixteen, was in the crowd looking on with the rest. How deeply must the events of that tragic day have sunk into the boy's soul! Because, like Æschylus,—the first great writer of tragedies,—he too sees

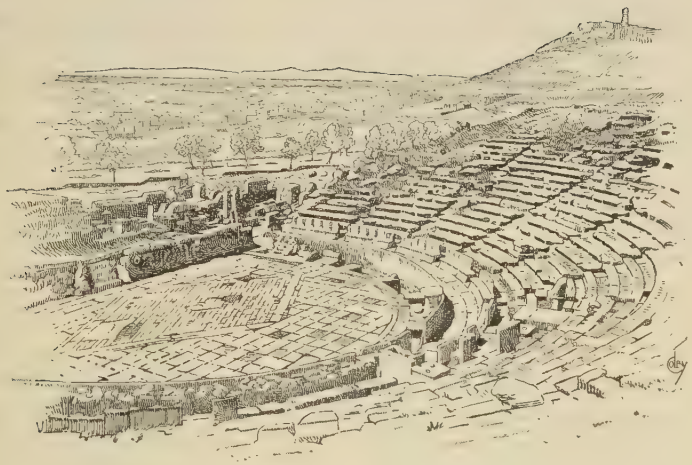
THE SO-CALLED TEMPLE OF THESEUS, THE AREOPAGUS, AND THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS

the will of the gods in all that happens to men. He exhorts his audience to worship Zeus, however dark the destiny which the great god lays upon men. For Sophocles is no friend of the Sophists, who scoff at the gods.

126. Euripides. Our citizen is inclined to distrust the new sensational plays of Euripides, who lives on the island of Salamis. He is a friend and companion of the Sophists, and in matters of religion his mind is troubled with doubts. All his plays are filled with these doubts regarding the gods. He has raised a great many questions which the citizen has never been able to banish from his own mind. Sophocles, therefore, suits all the old-fashioned folk, and it is very rarely that Euripides, in spite of his great ability, has been able to carry off the prize. The citizen feels some anxiety as he realizes that his own son and most of the other young men of his set are enthusiastic admirers of Euripides. They constantly read his plays and talk them over with the Sophists.

127. Comedy. The great tragedies were given in the morning, and in the afternoon the people were ready for less serious entertainment, such as *comedy* offered. From the old-time country festivals the comedy developed into a stage performance. The comedy-writers did not hesitate to introduce into their plays the greatest dignitaries of the State. Even Pericles was not spared, and great philosophers or serious-minded writers like Socrates and Euripides were represented on the stage and made irresistibly ridiculous, while the multitudes of Athens vented their delight in roars of laughter mingled with shouts and cheers.

128. Books and Reading. Now at last books had come to take an important place in the life of Athens. In our Athenian citizen's library were Homer and the works of the old classic poets. They were written on long rolls of papyrus as much as a hundred and fifty or sixty feet in length. Besides literary works, all sorts of books of instruction began to appear. The sculptors wrote of their art, and there was a large group of books on medicine bearing the name of Hippocrates. Textbooks on mathematics and rhetoric circulated, and the Athenian housekeeper could even find a cookbook at the bookshop.



THE THEATER OF ATHENS

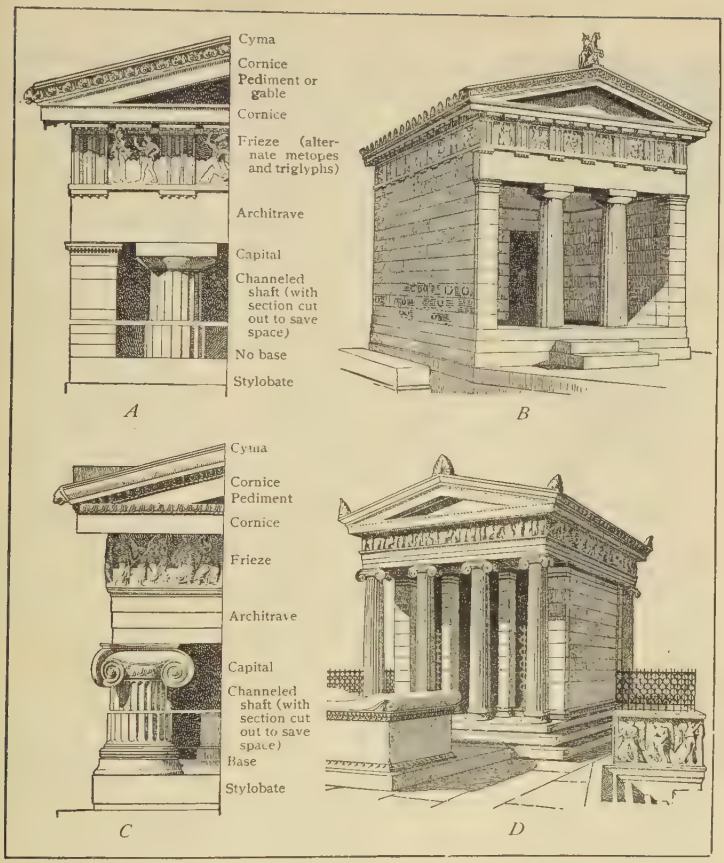
This theater was the center of the growth and development of Greek drama, which began as a part of the celebration of the spring feast of Dionysus, god of the vine and the fruitfulness of the earth. The temple of the god stood here, just at the left. Long before anyone knew of such a thing as a theater, the people gathered at this place to watch the celebration of the god's spring feast, where they formed a circle about the chorus, which narrated in song the stories of the gods. This circle (called the orchestra) was finally marked out permanently, seats of wood for the spectators were erected in a semi-circle on one side, but the singing and action all took place in the circle on the level of the ground. On the side opposite the public was a booth, or tent (Greek, *skēnē*, "scene"), for the actors, and out of this finally developed the stage. Here we see the circle, or orchestra, with the stage cutting off the back part of the circle. The seats are of stone and accommodated possibly seventeen thousand people. The fine marble seats in the front row were reserved for the leading men of Athens. The old wooden seats were still in use in the days when Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides presented their dramas here. From the seats the citizens had a grand view of the sea and the island of Ægina, for orchestra and seats continued roofless, and a Greek theater was always open to the sky

129. Summary. Under such influences there had grown up at Athens a large group of intelligent men. They constantly shared in the tasks and problems of city government, and they also had the daily opportunity of coming in contact with the greatest works of art in literature, drama, painting, architecture, and sculpture. Very different from the old Athens of the days before the repulse of the Persians, the new Athens had become a wonderful community such as the ancient world had never known before. It now remained to be seen whether the *people,* in complete control of the State, could guide her wisely and maintain her power.

III. Fall of the Athenian Empire

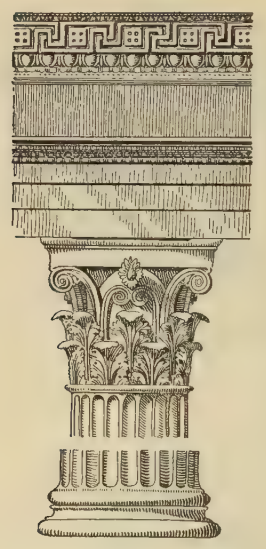
130. Unpopularity of Athens. In spite of all her greatness Athens was unpopular. Sparta hated her and despised her refinement. The merchants of Corinth were jealous of her successful business. The island cities which had joined her in the Delian League (§ 113) wanted to withdraw when peace was arranged with Persia, but Athens would not let them and forced them to continue to pay tribute to the treasury, which had been transferred from Delos to Athens. Her dependencies in the northern Ægean revolted and received support from Sparta and Corinth.

131. Second Peloponnesian War. One war had been waged (§ 115), now another began in 431 B.C. Pericles had to crowd all the people around Athens into the city and the walls leading down to the Piræus. For season after season the Spartans and other enemies of Athens beleaguered the city. The plague, brought in from the Orient, broke out several times and carried off perhaps a third of the population. Pericles lost control of the people, was accused of misappropriating the public funds, and fined. Later he was reëlected when matters went from bad to worse, but he died of the plague. After ten years of war and devastation a peace was arranged, and the belligerents gave back the conquests they had made and retained only what they had held before the war.



THE TWO LEADING STYLES OF GREEK ARCHITECTURE, THE DORIC (*A* AND *B*) AND THE IONIC (*C* AND *D*). (AFTER LUCKENBACH)

The little Doric building (*B*) is the treasury of the Athenians at Delphi, containing their offerings of gratitude to Apollo. On the low base at the left side of the building were placed the trophies from the battle of Marathon. Over them on the walls are carved hymns to Apollo with musical notes attached, the oldest musical notation surviving. The beautiful Ionic building (*D*) is a restoration of the temple of Victory on the Athenian Acropolis. Contrast its slender columns with the sturdier shafts of the Doric style, and it will be seen that the Ionic order is a more delicate and graceful style. *A* and *C* show details of both styles. See page 88 for example of the third style of architecture—the Corinthian



A Corinthian Capital

The shaft of this column has been cut out in the drawing between the base and the capital to save space. Like the capitals of Egypt, this one represents a plant, the leaves of the acanthus, alternating in two rows around the capital and crowned by volutes rising to the four corners of a flat block upon which the supported stone above rests. The effect of this capital is peculiarly rich and ornate

132. Alcibiades and the Expedition to Sicily. Soon the war spirit in Athens was again aroused by Alcibiades, a brilliant young man and a relative of Pericles. He made the fatal suggestion that the Athenians send their fleet to attack Syracuse in Sicily, a colony of Corinth. Alcibiades was one of the generals in command of the expedition. The people of Athens, however, decided to recall him, for he was accused, with other young men, of having impiously mutilated certain sacred images before he sailed. Thereupon Alcibiades deserted to Sparta and gave the enemy the benefit of his skill and insight. The Spartans sent a force to aid Syracuse. The Athenian general managed things so badly that Athens had to impoverish herself by sending a second fleet. No Greek state had ever mustered such forces and sent them so far away to fight. In 413 B.C. the Syracusans managed to trap the Athenian fleet in the harbor. The troops which landed were captured and sold as slaves. This disaster, together with the ravages of the plague, brought Athens to the end of her resources.

133. Distress of Athens. On the advice of Alcibiades Sparta now laid permanent siege to Athens. The Greek cities of Asia Minor and of the islands turned against her, and, along with Sparta, even received the support of the Persian satrap in western Asia Minor. So the members of the former Delian League, established to resist Persia, were now allied with Persia to fight the founder of the league.

134. Return of Alcibiades. In spite of his notorious treason the Athenians now asked Alcibiades to return and help them. Under his guidance they once more got command of the sea. But a slight reverse of the fleet when he was not even present led the fickle Athenians to desert him, and he fled to a castle on the Hellespont which he had in readiness. Here he died in exile murdered by a Persian. Soon after the flight of Alcibiades the Athenian fleet was captured by the Spartan general Lysander as it lay drawn up on the beach in the neighborhood of the Hellespont (at Ægospotami).

135. Fall of the Athenian Empire (404 B.C.). At last, twenty-seven years after Pericles had provoked the war with Sparta, Athens was exhausted. Not a man slept on the night when the terrible news of final ruin reached Athens. It was soon confirmed by the appearance of Lysander's fleet blockading the Piræus. The grain ships from the Black Sea could no longer reach the port of Athens. Starvation finally forced the stubborn democratic leaders to submit, and the city surrendered. The Long Walls and the fortifications of the Piræus were torn down, the remnant of the fleet was handed over to Sparta, all foreign possessions were given up, and Athens was forced to enter the Spartan League. These hard conditions saved the city from the complete destruction demanded by Corinth. Thus the century which had so gloriously begun for Athens with the repulse of Persia, the century which under the leadership of such men as Themistocles and Pericles had seen her rise to supremacy in all that was best and noblest in Greek life, closed with the annihilation of the Athenian Empire (404 B.C.).

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the houses in Athens in the time of Pericles. What was the appearance of the city? Were there any schools at this time? What instruction did a Greek boy receive? Describe the importance of athletics. What were the chief athletic events? What were the Academy and Lyceum? What opportunities were offered for higher education? What was the nature of the teachings of the

Sophists? Why were these teachers opposed? What progress was made in science? in medicine? Who was the first historian of whom we have any account? With what events does his history deal?

II. Describe the most celebrated building of Athens — the Parthenon. What importance did the drama have at this time? Tell something of the plays of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides. Can you give the names of any of their plays? Contrast as far as you can the Greek play with our own. What two kinds of plays were given? Define a tragedy; a comedy. Can you recall any examples in English, for instance, among the plays of Shakespeare? What books were available at this time?

III. Why was Athens looked upon with jealousy by the other cities of Greece? Review the Second Peloponnesian War. Who was Alcibiades? Describe the fall of Athens.

NOTE. This illustration shows us the lovely porch of the Maidens built to adorn the temple on the Acropolis known as the Erechtheum. It was a very ancient sanctuary of Athena, supposed to have gained its name because it was originally a shrine in the castle of the prehistoric king Erechtheus on the Acropolis. The temple was believed to stand on the spot where Athena overcame Poseidon in her battle with him for the possession of Attica, and here was the mark of the sea god's trident which he struck into the earth. Here also grew the original olive tree which Athena summoned from the earth as a gift to the Athenians. The building was erected during the last Peloponnesian war, in spite of the financial distress of Athens at that time. It is one of the most beautiful architectural works left us by the Greeks.

CHAPTER VII

CONTINUED CONFLICTS AMONG THE GREEK STATES; ART AND LITERATURE AFTER PERICLES

I. Political Revolutions

136. Spartan Rule; Struggle of Oligarchy and Democracy. The long struggle of Athens for the leadership of the Greek world had failed. It now remained to be seen whether her victorious rival, Sparta, was any better suited to undertake such leadership. Military garrisons commanded by Spartan officers were placed in many of the Greek cities, and Spartan control was maintained in a much more offensive form than was the old tyranny of Athens. In each city the Spartans established and supported by military force a government carried on by a small group of men from the noble or upper class. The rule of a small group was called *oligarchy*, a Greek term meaning "rule of a few." In this violent way Sparta was able to repress the democracies which had been hostile to her. In some cities the oligarchies were guilty of the worst excesses, murdering or banishing their political opponents and seizing their fortunes. When the atrocities of the oligarchs, backed by Sparta, became quite unbearable in any city, the people would be roused to revolution and would drive their rulers out. So there was constant disorder within the Greek states as well as continued wars between them. It is a dreary story which need not be told here.

137. Rise of Professional Soldiers. The Peloponnesian Wars had kept large numbers of Greeks so long in the army that many of them remained in military life and became *professional soldiers*. Soldiers serving a foreign state for pay are called "mercenaries." The Greek youths who could find no opportunities at home were therefore enlisting as soldiers in Egypt, in Asia Minor,

and in Persia, and the best young blood of Greece was being spent to strengthen foreign states instead of building up the power of the Greeks.

During the Peloponnesian Wars *military leadership* had also become a profession. Athens produced a whole group of professional military leaders; the most talented among these was Xenophon. About 400 B.C. he took service in Asia Minor with a young Persian prince who was planning to overthrow his brother, the Persian king. The attempt was unsuccessful and in the retreat from Babylon Xenophon led ten thousand Greek mercenaries up the Tigris past the ruins of Nineveh and through the mountains until they reached the Black Sea and finally returned home in safety. Of this extraordinary raid into the Persian Empire Xenophon has left a history called the *Anabasis* ("upgoing"), one of the great books which have descended to us from ancient times.

Just as in our own day there has been a great development of warlike devices, such as submarines, tanks, and poisonous gases, so the Greeks now began to introduce new war machinery from the East, such as movable towers and battering-rams for attacking cities. At the same time the size of the warships was increased. The newer ones had five banks of oars instead of three, and the older triremes could no longer face these improved and powerful vessels. Fighting continued, in spite of all the disasters it caused, to be one of the chief preoccupations of the Greeks.

138. Final Humiliation of Sparta. Sparta managed to maintain her leadership for over thirty years. But she had to face frequent revolts on the part of the cities which resented her overlordship. The city of Thebes finally combined with Athens to crush Sparta. After a long war the distinguished Theban general and statesman Epaminondas decisively defeated the Spartans in the battle of Leuctra (371 B.C.). Over half of the Spartans engaged were slain and with them their king. It became clear that Sparta was not invincible, and she lost the repute which she had so long enjoyed on account of her military prowess.

139. Fall of Thebes and Political Prostration of the Whole Greek World. It then remained to be seen whether Thebes, the new victor, could accomplish what Athens and Sparta had failed in doing and could create a Greek nation. But the supremacy of the Thebans was based upon the genius of a single man, and when Epaminondas fell in battle (362 B.C.), the power of Thebes collapsed.

Thus the only powerful Greek states which might have welded the Hellenic world into a nation had crushed each other. Hellas was therefore doomed to fall helplessly before a conqueror from the outside. Yet in spite of their political decline during the two generations since Pericles, the Greeks, and especially the Athenians, had made such marvelous progress in art, architecture, literature, philosophy, and science that this period is regarded as one of the greatest in the history of man.

II. Greek Art, Literature, and Philosophy

140. Importance of Athens. In spite of the violence and disorder which we have been describing, there was a great deal of what we should call prosperity. Athens was the leading business center of the Mediterranean. While farming declined, manufacture and trade flourished, notwithstanding the constant losses due to war. Rich men combined to form the first great banks at Athens, which became the financial center of the ancient world, as New York and London are in our day. Her bankers became the proverbially rich men of the time. So there was wealth and leisure for the more fortunate classes at least. Instead of becoming mere money getters, however, the Athenians showed an extraordinary interest in art and philosophy.

141. The Sculpture of Praxiteles. Sculpture had changed much since the days of Pericles. The statues of men and women were no longer modeled in the rigid and severe form which had previously prevailed. Praxiteles, by far the most famous sculptor of this period, set the example of a more human and natural way of carving his marble figures. Unlike the cold and majestic

A Wall-Painting at Pompeii showing the Sacrifice of Iphigenia

The works of the great fourth-century artists have all perished, but it is supposed that the later house decorators and wall-painters of Italy copied the old masterpieces. Hence the scene here shown probably conveys some impression of old Greek painting. The scene shows us the maid Iphigenia as she is carried away to be slain as a sacrifice. The figure at the left, standing with veiled face, suggests, as often in modern art, the dreadfulness of a coming catastrophe, which human eyes are unwilling to behold. Note the skill with which human limbs are made to show thickness and roundness

representations of the gods which we have from the hand of Phidias, the gods and goddesses of Praxiteles appear as very lovely and ideal human beings, who stand at ease in graceful attitudes with care-free faces.

142. Painting and Discovery of Perspective. The introduction of painting on wooden tablets made it possible for people of

HERMES PLAYING WITH THE CHILD DIONYSUS

The uplifted right hand (now broken off) of the god probably held a bunch of grapes, with which he was amusing the child. This wonderful work was wrought by the sculptor Praxiteles and is one of the few *original* works of the greatest Greek sculptors found in Greece. Nearly all such Greek originals have perished, and we know them only in ancient Roman copies found in Italy. This great work was dug out at Olympia

PART OF THE FRIEZE OF PHIDIAS, SHOWING ATHENIAN YOUTHS RIDING IN THE PANATHENAIC FESTIVAL PROCESSION

Notice the marvelous dash and vigor of the horses; also the strength of the last youth, as he reins in his steed till the animal's jaw is drawn back to its neck. The reins and trappings were of metal and have disappeared

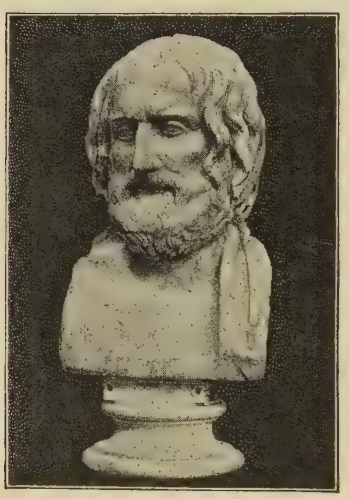
wealth to have pictures in their own houses, and in this way private support of art increased and painting made more rapid progress than ever before. An Athenian artist named Apollodorus now began to notice that the light usually fell on an object from one side, leaving the unlighted side so dark that but little color showed on that side, while on the lighted side the colors came out very brightly. When he painted a woman's arm in this way, lo, it looked round and seemed to stand out from the surface of the painting; whereas in the older Greek paintings all the human limbs looked perfectly flat. By representing figures in the background of his paintings as smaller than those in front, Apollodorus also introduced what we now call *perspective.*

143. Age of Conflict after the Death of Pericles. Any young Athenian born at about the time of Pericles' death found himself in an age of conflict wherever he went: an age of conflict *abroad* on the field of battle as he stood with spear and shield in the Athenian ranks in the long years of warfare between Athens, Sparta, and Thebes; an age of conflict *at home* in Athens amid the tumult and even bloodshed of the streets and markets of the city, as the common people, the democracy, struggled with the nobles for the leadership of the State; and finally an age of conflict *in himself* as he felt his own faith in old things struggling to maintain itself against new views which were coming in.

He recalled the childhood tales of the gods, which he had heard at his nurse's knee. When he had asked her how the gods looked she had pointed to a beautiful vase in his father's house. There were the gods on the vase in human form, and so he had long thought of them as people like those of Athens. Later at school he had memorized long passages of the Homeric poems and learned more about the gods' adventures on earth. Then he had begun to go to the theater, where he was much delighted with the comedies of Aristophanes, the greatest of the comedy writers (§ 127). Aristophanes ridiculed such men as Euripides and the Sophists, who doubted the existence of the gods.

144. Victory of Doubt; Triumph of Euripides. When, however, this young Athenian left his boyhood teacher behind and went

to hear the lectures of some noted Sophist (§ 120), he was told that no one knew with any certainty whether the gods existed, nor what they were like. Whatever the gods might be like, the Sophist was sure they were not such beings as he found pictured in the Homeric poems. The youth and his educated friends were all reading the splendid plays of Euripides (§ 126), with their uncertainties and struggles and doubts about life and the gods. Euripides, to whom the Athenians had rarely voted a victory during his lifetime, had now triumphed; and his triumph meant the defeat of the old beliefs, the rejection of the old ideas of the gods, and the incoming of a new age in thought and religion.



PORTRAIT OF EURIPIDES

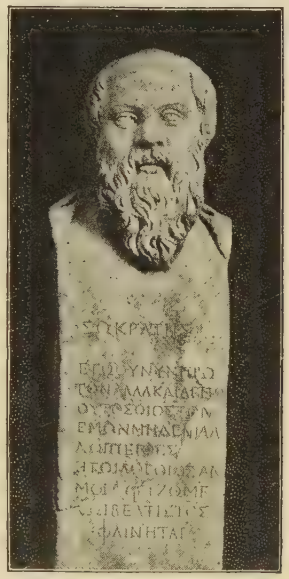
The name of the poet (§ 126) is engraved in Greek letters along the lower edge of the bust

145. Socrates. One of the chief doubters of the time was a poor Athenian named Socrates, whose ill-clothed figure and ugly face had become familiar in the streets to all the folk of Athens since the outbreak of the second war with Sparta. He was accustomed to stand about the market place all day long entering into conversation with anyone he met and asking a great many questions very hard to answer. Socrates' questions left most people in a very confused state of mind, for he seemed to throw doubt on many things which the Athenians had hitherto taken for granted.

Yet the familiar and homely figure of this stonecutter's son was the personification of the best and highest things in Greek genius. Without desire for office or a political career, Socrates' greatest interest nevertheless was the State. He believed that the State, made up as it was of citizens, could be purified and saved

only by the improvement of the *individual citizen* through the education of his mind to understand and appreciate virtue and justice.

Inspired by this belief, Socrates went about in Athens engaging his fellow citizens in discussion, with the hope that he might teach them better to understand themselves and the purposes of life. While Socrates made no appeal to religion as an influence toward good conduct, he nevertheless showed himself a deeply religious man, believing with devout heart in the gods, although they were not those of Homer, and even feeling, like the Hebrew prophets, that there was a divine voice within him calling him to his high mission.



PORTRAIT OF SOCRATES

This is not the best of the numerous surviving portraits of Socrates, but it is especially interesting because it bears under the philosopher's name nine inscribed lines containing a portion of his public defense as reported by Plato in his *Apology*

Socrates' fame spread far and wide, and when the Delphian oracle (§ 87) was asked who was the wisest of living men it responded with the name of this greatest of Greek teachers. A group of pupils gathered about him, among whom the most famous was Plato. But the aims and noble efforts of Socrates were misunderstood. His keen questions seemed to undermine all the old beliefs.

146. The Trial and Death of Socrates (399 B.C.). So the Athenians summoned Socrates to trial for corrupting the youth with all sorts of doubts and impious teachings. He might easily have left Athens when the complaint was lodged against him. Nevertheless he appeared for trial, made a powerful and dignified defense, and, when the court voted the death penalty, passed his last days in tranquil conversation with his friends and pupils, in whose

presence he then quietly drank the fatal hemlock poison. Thus the Athenian democracy, which had so mismanaged the affairs of the nation in war, brought upon itself much greater reproach in quite unjustly condemning to death its most profound thinker and reformer.

147. Writing of History. The change in Greek belief was also evident in a new and remarkable history. Its author was Thucydides, the first scientific writer of history. A generation earlier Herodotus' history (§ 122) had represented the fortunes of nations as due to the will of the gods; but Thucydides, with an insight like that of modern historians, traced historical events to their *earthly* causes in the world of men where they occur. There stood the two books, Herodotus and Thucydides, side by side in the citizen's library. There were only thirty years or so between them, but how different the beliefs of the two historians, the old and the new! The history of Thucydides has been one of the world's greatest prose classics ever since.

148. Plato (427–347 B. C.) and his Dialogues. Plato, by far the most gifted of the pupils of Socrates, wrote out much of his master's teachings in the form of imaginary conversations between Socrates and those who flocked around him to discuss the deep problems of man's nature and duty. These *Dialogues* are at once so charming and so full of profound thought that they are still ranked among the most wonderful books of all the ages. They give us a lively idea of the informal way in which the intellectual Athenians were wont to meet in the market place or in the house of some thoughtful citizen and confer together on the good, the true, and the beautiful. Among the most famous of the immortal *Dialogues* are those describing Socrates' defense of his teaching against his accusers and the calm manner in which he cheerfully discussed the immortality of the soul with his companions while he sat in prison and waited for the fatal draught of the poisonous hemlock to be administered. He faced death serenely, assured that his spirit would not perish with the body. It is through the writings of Plato that we learn most of what we know of Socrates, for he himself wrote nothing.

149. Aristotle (384–322 B. C.). One of Plato's students, Aristotle, was destined to gain a reputation through the ages almost greater than that of his master. With the help of his own advanced students Aristotle composed treatises on almost every imaginable subject—politics, ethics, economics, psychology, zoölogy, astronomy, poetry, and the drama. Indeed, it seems to have been his ambition to tell everything that had ever been discovered and present this information in such a way that others could easily learn it. His skill and knowledge were so great that in the Middle Ages his books were almost the only ones studied in the medieval universities, and he is still revered as perhaps the greatest scholar that the world has ever produced. Certainly the writings of no other man have ever enjoyed such long and widespread and unquestioned authority.

150. Continued Disunion of the Greeks and their Loss of Independence. In one of his most famous dialogues, *The Republic*, Plato discusses the best organization of government. It is remarkable that he always has in mind the old city-state of the Greeks and fails to see that the real question of his day was the relation of the various city-states—like Athens, Sparta, Corinth, and Thebes—*to one another*. He did not realize that no community, no matter how well organized, can stand absolutely alone, but must, if war and confusion are to be avoided, come to some good understanding with its neighbors. And this understanding the Greek cities had never reached, for they had never been willing to establish anything like a strong and permanent *federal* government, such as we have in the United States.

One of the men who saw all this most clearly was the great orator and statesman Isocrates. He eloquently urged the Greeks to neglect their petty differences and enlarge their local patriotism into a loyalty toward the Greeks as a whole, and so create a Greek nation which should be able to defend itself against the "barbarians," or non-Greek world. But the cities stubbornly refused to give up their independence, and as a consequence they soon fell under the sway of a foreign power, Macedonia, and later, as we shall see, were merged into the Roman Empire.

151. Summary of Greek Achievement after Pericles. The constant conflicts among the Greek cities, which proved so fatal to their political independence, had nevertheless spurred on each city to surpass its rivals in art and literature and all that is finest in civilization. Great as was the age of Pericles, the age that followed was still greater. The tiny Athenian state, having at most twenty-five or thirty thousand citizens, had furnished in this period a group of great artists and thinkers such as never in all the history of the world arose elsewhere in so small a community. Their names today are among the most illustrious in human history, and the achievements which are associated with them form one of the greatest chapters in the higher life of man.

QUESTIONS

I. What is the meaning of "oligarchy"? Describe the condition of Greece under the leadership of Sparta. What are "mercenaries"? When were professional soldiers and professional military leadership introduced into Greece? Can you give examples in modern states of professional soldiers and citizen soldiers? What do we usually call the citizen soldiers in America? What circumstances led Xenophon to write the *Anabasis*? What improvements were made in military equipment? Where did the Greeks learn the use of siege machinery? How long was Sparta able to maintain her supremacy? What combination succeeded in overthrowing Sparta? What put an end to the constant fighting between the city-states?

II. Describe the development of business at Athens. What advance was made in sculpture? What discoveries in the art of painting were made by Apollodorus? What newer ideas were coming in during the period of conflict? Tell what you know of the plays of Euripides. Who was Socrates? Did he leave any writings? How do we know of him? What is the *Socratic* method of teaching? What was the fate of Socrates? What advance was made in the writing of history? How did the history of Thucydides differ from that of Herodotus? Tell what you know of Plato. What contributions did Aristotle make to knowledge? What practical truth did Isocrates try to teach the Greeks?

CHAPTER VIII

ALEXANDER THE GREAT AND THE HELLENISTIC AGE

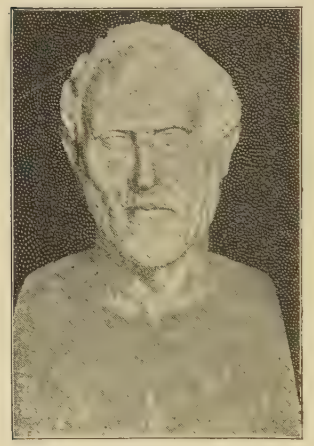
I. Macedonia and Alexander the Great

152. Philip of Macedonia and his New Army. A new power was developing to the north of the Greek cities, which was to play a great part in Greek affairs. This was Macedonia. Its first king of importance was Philip, the father of Alexander the Great. He came into control of Macedonia in 360 B.C. He had a Greek education and aspired to make himself master of the old and famous Greek cities to the south. His first step was to create a new and powerful army organized as a permanent institution. It was made up of infantry which fought in "phalanxes," or compact bodies of warriors trained to work together, and cavalry, which also moved about in masses and supported the phalanxes. This formed the very powerful Macedonian war machine by means of which Philip and his far more celebrated son were able to gain their astonishing victories.

153. Philip gains the Leadership of the Greeks (338 B.C.). Philip steadily extended the territory of his kingdom eastward and northward until it reached the Danube and the Hellespont. His progress soon brought him into conflict with the Greek states, which controlled cities in this northern region. Two parties then arose at Athens. One of them was quite willing to accept Philip's proffered friendship and to recognize in him the savior of the Greek world. The leader of this party was Isocrates (§ 150), now an aged man. The opposing party denounced Philip as a barbarous tyrant who was endeavoring to enslave the free Greek cities. The leader of this anti-Macedonian party was the great orator Demosthenes. His *Philippics*, as his public

speeches denouncing King Philip are called, are among the finest specimens of Greek eloquence.

After a long series of hostilities Philip defeated the Greek forces in a final battle of Chæronea (338 B.C.) and firmly established his position as head of a league of all the Greek states except Sparta, which still held out against him. He had begun operations in Asia Minor intended to set free the Greek cities there, when, two years after the battle of Chæronea, he was stabbed by conspirators during the revelries at the wedding of his daughter (336 B.C.).



Portrait Bust of Demosthenes

154. Education and Character of Alexander the Great. The kingship passed into the hands of Philip's son Alexander, a youth of only twenty years. Seven years before, when Alexander was thirteen, his father had summoned to the Macedonian court the great philosopher Aristotle to be the teacher of the young prince. Under his instruction Alexander had learned to know and love the masterpieces of Greek literature, especially the Homeric songs. The deeds of the ancient heroes touched and kindled his youthful imagination and lent a heroic tinge to his whole character.

155. Alexander subjugates the Greek States. The Greek states were still unwilling to submit to Macedonian leadership, and they fancied they could easily overthrow so young a ruler as Alexander. They were soon to learn how old a head there was on his shoulders. When Thebes revolted against Macedonia for the second time after Philip's death, Alexander captured and completely destroyed the city, sparing only the house of the great poet Pindar. All Greece was thus taught to fear and respect his power, but learned at the same time to recognize his reverence for Greek culture. The Greek states, accordingly, with the exception

of Sparta, formed a league and elected Alexander as its leader and general. As a result they all sent troops to increase his army.

156. Alexander, the Champion of Hellas against Asia. The Asiatic campaign which Alexander now planned was to make it clear that he was the champion of Hellas against Asia and its Persian rulers. Leading his army into Asia Minor, he stopped at Troy and camped upon the plain where the Greek heroes of the Homeric songs had once fought. Here he worshiped in the temple of Athena and prayed for the success of his cause against Persia. He thus contrived to throw around himself the heroic memories of the Trojan War, till all Hellas beheld the dauntless figure of the Macedonian youth as if he had stepped out of that glorious age which in their belief had long ago united Greek arms against Asia.

157. Battle of the Granicus (334 B.C.) and Conquest of Asia Minor. Meantime the Persian king had hired thousands of Greek heavy-armed infantry, and they were now to do battle against their own Greek countrymen. At the river Granicus, in his first critical battle, Alexander had no difficulty in scattering the forces of the western Persian satraps. Marching southward he retook the Greek cities which had long before been conquered by the Persians and freed all western Asia Minor forever from the Persian yoke.

Alexander then pushed boldly eastward and rounded the northeast corner of the Mediterranean. Here, as he looked out upon the Fertile Crescent, there was spread before him the vast Asiatic world where the family of the Great King had been supreme for two centuries. In this vast arena he was to be the champion for the next ten years (333–323 B.C.).

158. Defeat of Darius III at the Battle of Issus (333 B.C.). At this important point, by the Gulf of Issus (see map, p. 104), Alexander met the main army of Persia, under the personal command of King Darius III, the last of the Persian line. The Macedonians swept the Asiatics from the field (see *Ancient Times*, Fig. 202), and the disorderly retreat of Darius never stopped until the Euphrates had been crossed. The Great King then

sent a letter to Alexander, desiring terms of peace and offering to accept the Euphrates as a boundary, and arranging that all Asia west of that river be handed over to the Macedonians.

Alexander's friends advised him to accept the terms. But before the kindling eyes of the young king there rose a vision of world empire controlled by Greek civilization—a vision to which the duller eyes about him were entirely closed. He waved aside his father's old counselors and decided to advance to the conquest of the whole Persian Empire.

159. Conquest of Phœnicia and Egypt. The danger from the Persian fleet was now carefully and deliberately met by a march southward along the eastern end of the Mediterranean. All the Phœnician seaports on the way were captured. Feeble Egypt, so long a Persian province, then fell an easy prey to the Macedonian army. The Persian fleet, thus deprived of all its home harbors and cut off from its home government, soon scattered and disappeared.

160. Alexander Lord of the Ancient East (330 B.C.). Having thus cut off the hostile fleet in his rear, Alexander returned from Egypt to Asia, and, marching eastward along the Fertile Crescent, crossed the Tigris close by the mounds which had long covered the ruins of Nineveh. Here, near Arbela, the Great King had gathered his forces for a last stand (see map, p. 104). Although greatly outnumbered, the Macedonians crushed the Asiatic army and forced the Persians into disgraceful flight. In a few days Alexander was living in the winter palace of the Persian king in Babylon.

At last both the valley of the Nile and the Fertile Crescent, the homes of the two earliest civilizations, were now in the hands of a *European* power and under the control of a newer and higher civilization. Less than five years had passed since the young Macedonian had entered Asia.

161. Alexander's Campaigns in the Far East (330–324 B.C.) and his Return to Babylon (323 B.C.). In the course of the next few years Alexander marched his army northward across the Oxus and the Jaxartes rivers, southward across the Indus and the

Longitude
15°
20°
25°
30°
35°
40°
45°
40°
35°
30°
25°
35°
ILLYRIA
Danube
Brundisium
BALKAN MTS.
THRACE
BLACK SEA
CAUCAS
MACEDONIA
Byzantium
Bosporus
Heraclea
Halys R.
Amphipolis
Olympus
THESSALY
Ilium
Granicus
PAPHLAGONIA
Trapezus
Gordium
Ancyra
MYSIA
Sardis
Lydia
PHRYGIA
CAPPADOCIA
ARMENIA
GREECE
Sparta
Athens
Corinth
Miletus
Ephesus
CARIA
PISIDIA
Cilician Gates
Crete
Rhodes
CILICIA
Issus
Gaugamela
MESOPOTAMIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Cyprus
Gulf of Issus
Arbela
Cyrene
Byblos
Euphrates
Tyre
Damascus
Alexandria
Samaria
Jerusalem
Babylon
AFRICA
SAHARA DESERT
Naucratis
Memphis
Oasis of Siwa (Ammonium)
Sinai
Nile
EGYPT
Red Sea
ARABIA
Thebes
Syene
Elephantine
First Cataract
EMPIRE
ALEXANDER T
Empire of Al
States subjec
States indepe
Marches of A
Voyage of N
Scale of Stat
0 100 200
ALEXANDRIA
Statute Miles
0 1/2 1 2
1. Royal War Harbor
2. Theater
3. Inner Royal Castle
4. Museum and Library
5. Mausoleum
6. Gymnasium
Pharos L.H.
Royal Palace
Cape Lochias
Barracks
Great Harbor
Jewish Quarter
Pharos
Heptastadium
Harbor of Eunostos
Necropolis
Lake Mareotis

REAT

e Great
der
lexander

500

frontiers of India, into the valley of the Ganges, where at last the complaints of his weary troops forced him to turn back.

The return march through desert wastes cost many lives as the thirsty and ill-provisioned troops dropped by the way. Over seven years after he had left the great city of Babylon, Alexander entered it again. He had been less than twelve years in Asia, and he had carried Greek civilization into the very heart of the continent. At important points along his line of march he had founded Greek cities bearing his name and had set up kingdoms which were to be centers of Greek influence on the frontiers of India.

162. His Plans to conquer the Western Mediterranean. In the midst of all this he carefully worked out a plan of campaign for the conquest of the *western* Mediterranean. His program included the building of a fleet of a thousand battleships with which to subdue Italy, Sicily, and Carthage. It also included the construction of a vast roadway along the northern coast of Africa, to be built at enormous expense, to furnish a highway for his army from Egypt to Carthage and the Atlantic.

163. Deification of Alexander. The great rulers of the Orient had been regarded as descended from gods. Alexander now deemed it advisable to secure a similar distinction for himself. He therefore had the Egyptian priests salute him as the son of their god Amon (*Ancient Times*, § 706). He adopted oriental usages, among which was the requirement that all who approached him on official occasions should bow down to the earth and kiss his feet. Formal notification was sent to all the Greek cities that he was henceforth to be officially numbered among the gods of each city, and that as such he was to receive the State offerings which each city presented. In this way absolute monarchy and the divine right of kings were introduced into Europe for the first time.

164. Death of Alexander (323 B.C.). As Alexander was preparing for a campaign to subjugate the Arabian peninsula which would leave him free to carry out his great plans for the conquest of the western Mediterranean he fell sick, probably as the result

of a drunken debauch, and after a few days died (323 B.C.). He was thirty-three years of age and had reigned thirteen years.

Alexander has been well termed "the Great." Few men of genius, and certainly none in so brief a career, have left so indelible a mark upon the course of human affairs. Alexander's amazing conquests had placed the Orient under European leaders, and from that day to this—with some intervals—the effort to force Western leadership on the Orient has continued.

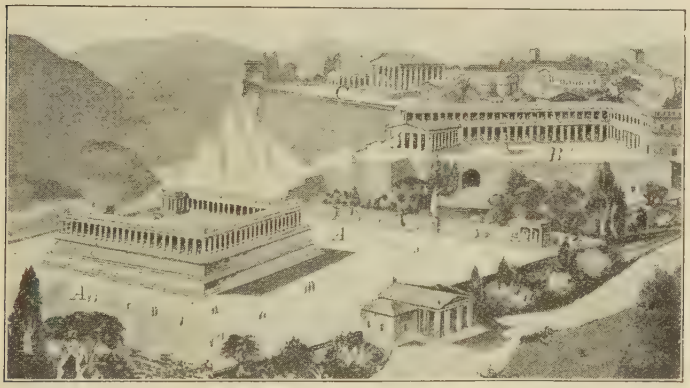
165. Division of Alexander's Realm; the Ptolemies in Egypt. After a generation of exhausting wars by land and sea Alexander's empire fell into three main parts,—in Europe, Asia, and Africa,—with one of his generals, or one of their successors, at the head of each. In Europe, Macedonia was in the hands of Antigonus, grandson of Alexander's commander of the same name. He endeavored also to maintain control of Greece. In Asia most of the territory of the former Persian Empire was under the rule of Alexander's general Seleucus, who founded the important city of Antioch. In Africa, Egypt was held by Ptolemy, one of the cleverest of Alexander's Macedonian leaders. He gradually made himself king and became the founder of a dynasty or family of kings, whom we call the Ptolemies. He took up his residence at the great harbor city of Alexandria, the city which Alexander had founded in the western Nile delta. For nearly a century (roughly the third century B.C.) the eastern Mediterranean, from Greece to Syria and from the Ægean to the Nile delta, was under the control of Egypt.

166. Decline of Greece. Greece was no longer commercial leader of the Mediterranean. The victories of Alexander the Great had opened up the vast Persian Empire to Greek commercial colonists, who poured into all the favorable centers of trade. Not only did Greece decline in population, but business prosperity and the leadership in trade passed eastward, especially to Alexandria and Antioch. As the Greek cities lost their wealth they could no longer support fleets or mercenary armies, and they soon became too feeble to protect themselves. Although they began to combine in alliances or federations for mutual assistance,

they were unable to throw off the Macedonian yoke. In spite of the political feebleness of the Greeks in this age, their civilization maintained its high level under the successors of Alexander.

II. The Civilization of the Hellenistic Age

167. The Hellenistic Age.[1] The three centuries following the death of Alexander are called the Hellenistic Age, meaning the



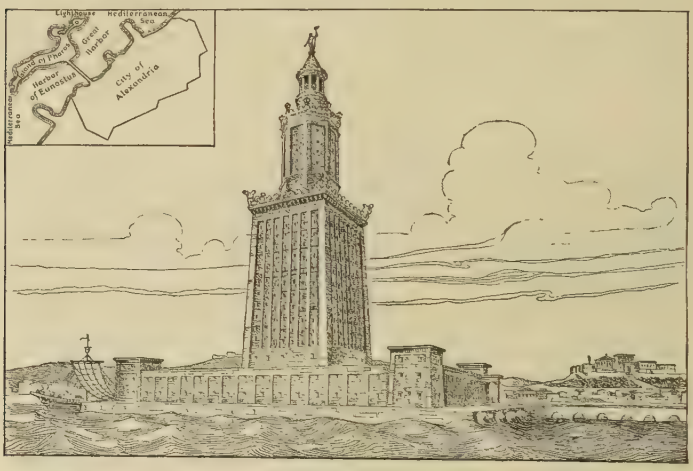
Restoration of the Public Buildings of Pergamum, a Hellenistic City of Asia Minor. (After Thiersch)

Pergamum, on the west coast of Asia Minor, became a flourishing city-kingdom in the third century B.C. under the successors of Alexander the Great. The dwellings of the citizens were all lower down, in front of the group of buildings shown here. These public buildings stand on three terraces—lower, middle, and upper. The large *lower* terrace (*A*) was the main market place, adorned with a vast square marble altar of Zeus, having colonnades on three sides, beneath which was a long sculptured band (frieze) of warring gods and giants. On the *middle* terrace (*B*), behind the colonnades, was the famous library of Pergamum, where the stone bases of library shelves still survive. The *upper* terrace (*C*) once contained the palace of the king; the temple now there was built by the Roman emperor Trajan in the second century of the Christian Era

period in which Greek civilization spread throughout the ancient world. The orientals now had Greek-speaking rulers and were constantly carrying on business with Greek merchants; they

[1] For a fuller sketch of Hellenistic civilization see *Ancient Times*, §§ 727–768.

found many Greek books to read and Greek plays to attend. Greek thus gradually became the prevailing language of the great cities and of an enormous world stretching from southern Italy eastward on both sides of the Mediterranean far into Asia.



THE LIGHTHOUSE OF THE HARBOR OF ALEXANDRIA IN THE HELLENISTIC AGE. (AFTER THIERSCH)

The harbor of Alexandria (see corner map) was protected by an island called Pharos, which was connected with the city by a causeway of stone. On the island, and bearing its name (Pharos), was built (after 300 B.C.) a vast stone lighthouse, some three hundred and seventy feet high (that is, over thirty stories, like those of a modern skyscraper). It shows how vast was the commerce and wealth of Alexandria only a generation after it was founded by Alexander the Great, when it became the New York or Liverpool of the ancient world, the greatest port on the Mediterranean

City life was more comfortable than ever before. The houses were more beautifully furnished and decorated, and for the first time water pipes were installed connected with a town water supply. The streets also were equipped with drainage channels or pipes, a thing unknown in the days of Pericles.

168. Alexandria: its Commerce and Splendid Public Buildings. In numbers, wealth, commerce, and in all the arts of civilization Alexandria was now the greatest city of the whole ancient

EXAMPLE OF HELLENISTIC STATUARY

The kings of Pergamum had to repel an invasion of the Gauls from the North, and this struggle is represented on one of the surviving pieces of sculpture. Here we have one of the defeated Gallic chieftains, who with one hand supports his dying wife and with the other plunges his sword into his own breast, at the same time casting a terrified glance at the pursuing enemy. The tremendous power of the barbarian's muscular figure is in startling contrast with the helpless limbs of the woman

SCULPTURES FROM THE HELLENISTIC CITY OF PERGAMUM

Above is a Gallic trumpeter, as he sinks in death with his trumpet at his feet. Below is a part of the frieze around the great altar of Zeus at Pergamum. It pictures the mythical struggle between gods and giants. A giant at the left, whose limbs end in serpents, raises over his head a great stone to hurl it at the goddess on the right

world. Along the harbors stretched the extensive Alexandrian docks, where ships which had braved the Atlantic storms off the coasts of Spain and Africa moored beside oriental craft which had penetrated even to the gates of the Indian Ocean. From far across the sea the mariners approaching at night could catch the light of a lofty beacon shining from a gigantic lighthouse tower which marked the entrance to the harbor of Alexandria.

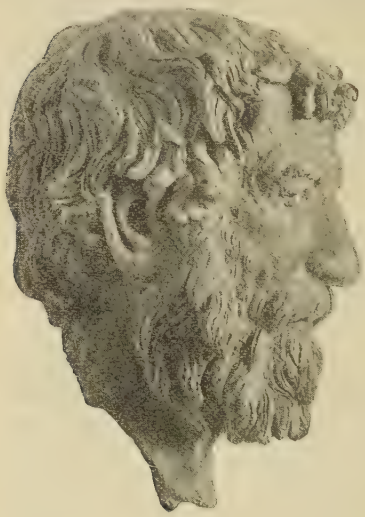
From the deck of a great merchant ship of over four thousand tons the incoming traveler might look cityward past the lighthouse and beyond the great war fleet of the Ptolemies and see, embowered in the rich green masses of tropical verdure, the magnificent marble buildings of Alexandria: the royal palace, the museum, the gymnasiums, baths, stadiums, assembly hall, concert hall, market places, and basilicas, all surrounded by the residence quarters of the citizens. Unfortunately not one of the splendid buildings of ancient Alexandria still stands.

169. Scientific Advance; Archimedes. The keen intelligence of this wonderful age was everywhere evident. Some interesting inventions were made; for example, the screw and the cogwheel. One of the famous feats of the great scientist Archimedes was his arrangement of a series of pulleys and levers which so multiplied power that he was able by turning a light crank to launch a large three-masted ship standing fully loaded on the dock. After witnessing such feats as this the people easily believed his proud boast, "Give me a place to stand on and I will move the earth." But Archimedes was far more than an inventor of practical appliances. He was a scientific investigator of the first rank, the discoverer of what we now call "specific gravity." Besides his skill in physics he was also the greatest of ancient mathematicians.

170. The Alexandrian Scientists. Although Archimedes lived in Syracuse he was in close correspondence with his friends in Alexandria, who formed the greatest body of scientists in the ancient world. They lived together at the *Museum,* a sort of university where they were paid salaries and supported by the Ptolemies. They formed the first scientific institution founded and supported by a government. They were the forerunners of

systematic scientific research, and their books were regarded as authorities for nearly two thousand years, until science took a new start in modern times.

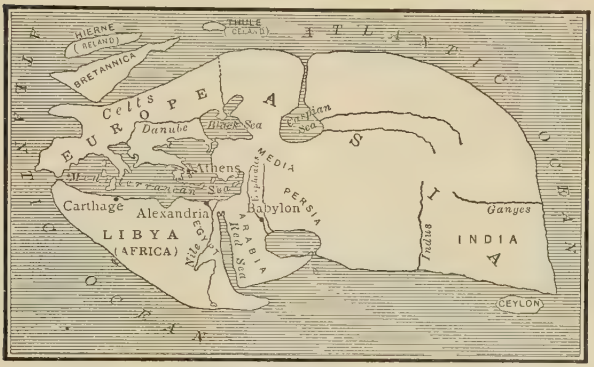
The most famous mathematician among them was Euclid. His system of geometry was so logically built up that in modern England Euclid's geometry is still retained as a schoolbook—the oldest schoolbook in use today. The Ptolemies built an astronomical observatory at Alexandria, and although it was, of course, without telescopes, important observations and discoveries were made. An astronomer of little fame, named Aristarchus, who lived on the island of Samos, even discovered that the earth and the planets revolve around the sun, though few people would believe him and his discovery was forgotten.



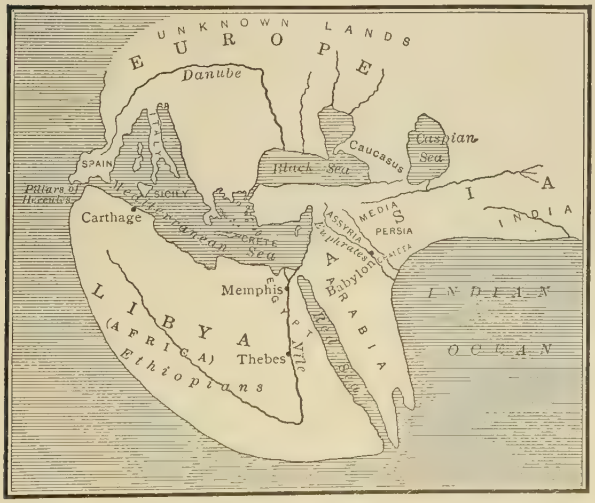
HELLENISTIC PORTRAIT HEAD IN BRONZE

This magnificent head of an unknown man, with wonderful representation of the hair, was recovered from the bottom of the sea. It is now in the Museum of Athens

Astronomy greatly aided in the progress of geography. Eratosthenes, a mathematical astronomer of Alexandria, very cleverly computed the size of the earth. Much new information had also been gained regarding the extent and the character of the regions reached by explorers in this age, from the eastern coast of India to the British Isles. Eratosthenes was therefore able to write a more accurate geography than anyone before his time. It contained the first map bearing a cross-net of lines indicating latitude and longitude. This enabled him to locate any spot on land or sea far more accurately than had been possible before.



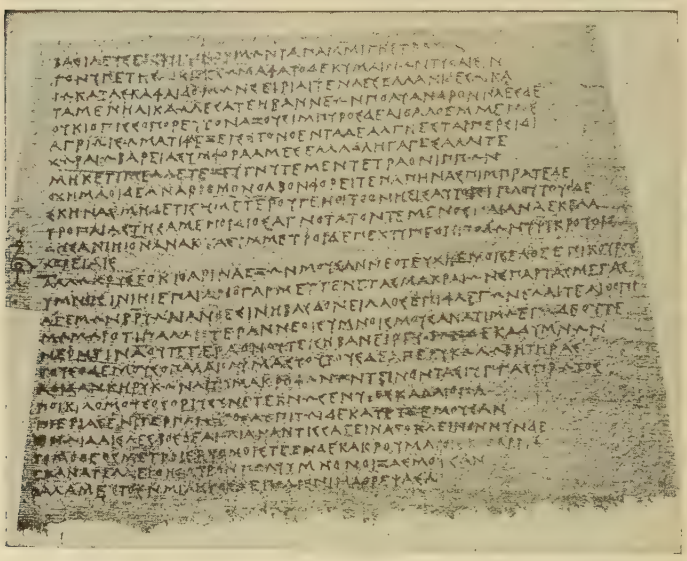
Map of the World according to Herodotus (450 B.C.)



Map of the World according to Eratosthenes (200 B.C.)

171. The Alexandrian Library and Book Publishing. Besides these natural sciences there was now much study of literature. All other libraries of the time were far surpassed by that of the Ptolemies at Alexandria, which finally contained over half a million rolls. The immense amount of copying by hand required

to secure good and accurate editions of famous works for this library gradually created the new science of editing and publishing correctly old and often badly copied works. This naturally required careful study of language and writing, and the Alexandrian scholars began to write the first grammars and dictionaries.



A Page from the Earliest Surviving Greek Book

This book, written on papyrus, was found lying beside the body of a man buried in an Egyptian cemetery. What we have called a *page* is really a *column* of writing, and the book consisted of a series of such columns side by side on the roll (see cut on next page)

172. The Schools of the University at Athens. Athens was still the leading center of philosophy. The youth who went there to take up philosophical studies found the successors of Plato still continuing his teaching in the quiet grove of the Academy (§ 119), where his memory was greatly revered. Plato's pupil Aristotle, after having been the teacher of the young Alexander, had returned to Athens, and had also established at the Lyceum

(§ 119) a school of his own known as the *Peripatetic* School, because it occupied a terrace called the "Walk" (Greek, *peripatos*).

But many Greeks desired some teaching which would lead them to a happy and contented frame of mind and guide men in their attempts to live successfully. To meet this desire two more schools of philosophy arose at Athens. The first was the *Stoic* School, which derived its name from a portico in Athens called the *Stoa*. This school taught that the great aim of life should be a fortitude of soul indifferent both to pleasure and to pain. Its followers were famous for their fortitude, and hence our common use of the word "stoicism" to indicate indifference to suffering. The Stoic School was very popular and finally became the greatest of the schools of philosophy. The second, the *Epicurean* School, founded by Epicurus in his own garden at Athens, taught that the highest good was happiness, both of body and of mind, but always in moderation and in accordance with virtue. Its views were high-minded but often misunderstood, hence even now we call a man devoted to pleasure, especially in eating, an "epicure." The School of Epicurus, like the Stoics, flourished and attracted many disciples.

GREEK YOUTH READING FROM A ROLL, OR BOOK

It will be seen that the young man holds the roll so that he rolls up a portion of it with one hand as he unrolls another portion with the other. He soon has a roll in each hand, while he holds smoothly stretched out between the two rolls the exposed portion, from which he reads a column of writing like that which we see photographed from the oldest-preserved Greek book (roll). Such a column formed for him a page, but when it was read, instead of turning a page as we do, he rolled it away to the left side and brought into view a new column from the other roll on the right side

173. The Fall of the Old Greek Gods. For highly educated men the beliefs of Stoicism or Epicureanism served as their religion. They usually no longer believed in the gods in the old way. There was complete freedom of conscience—far more freedom than the Christian rulers of later Europe granted their subjects. The teachings of Socrates would not now have caused his condemnation by his Athenian neighbors.

With the weakening of their faith in the old Greek gods many Greeks adopted the gods of Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor, and these became more and more popular.

174. The Larger World of the Hellenistic Age. The older Greek states had been merged into a larger world. For while Greek civilization, with its language, its art, its literature, its theaters and gymnasiums, was *hellenizing the Orient*, the Orient in the same way was *orientalizing the eastern Mediterranean world*. But this world of the *eastern* Mediterranean, which had grown up as a result of Alexander's conquests, had by 200 B.C. reached a point when it was to come under the control of a great new military power from the *western* Mediterranean. We shall be unable to understand the further story of the eastern Mediterranean until we have turned back and followed the history of the western Mediterranean world. In Italy for some three centuries the city of Rome had been developing a power which was to unite both the East and the West into a vast empire including the *whole Mediterranean*.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the military machine of Philip of Macedonia. How did Philip gain the leadership of the Greeks? Tell what you know of the education of Alexander the Great. How did Alexander subjugate the Greek states after Philip's death? Describe Alexander's campaign extending to the Euphrates River. How did the ancient East come under the control of a European power? How were Alexander's realms divided at his death? What were the reasons for the political decline of Greece?

II. What is meant by the Hellenistic Age? Describe the ways in which Greek language and civilization were spread into the East.

What were the conflicts of city life in this age? Describe the city of Alexandria. What advance was made in science? What contributions did Archimedes make? What was the Museum in Alexandria? For what is Euclid celebrated? What is the derivation and meaning of the word "geometry"? Compare the map of the world as understood in the time of Herodotus and in that of Eratosthenes. What progress was made in the knowledge of the earth? What is the derivation and meaning of "geography"? How did Eratosthenes lay the foundation of modern geography? Describe the Library of Alexandria. What were the main schools of philosophy at this time? Contrast the Stoics and Epicureans. What was the attitude of the intellectual class toward the gods? Give the chief effects of Greek ideas on the Orient, and of the oriental civilization on the Greek world.

NOTE. The tailpiece below is a pleasing example of the Alexandrian art of mosaic — the art of putting together brightly colored bits of glass or stone and forming figures or designs with them, as a child puts together a puzzle picture. It was an old Egyptian art, which was carried much further by the Greeks at Alexandria, where they seem to have learned it, and used it in making beautiful pavements.

BOOK III. THE ROMANS

CHAPTER IX

THE WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN WORLD AND THE ROMAN CONQUEST OF ITALY

I. Italy and the Origin of Rome

175. The Mediterranean the Center of Ancient History. The Mediterranean Sea is a very large body of water, almost as long as Europe itself. Laid out across the United States it would reach from New York over to California. Italy divides it into two basins, which we may conveniently call the eastern and western Mediterranean worlds.

176. Italy: its Geography and Climate. Italy is about six hundred miles long. It is not only much larger than Greece but possesses wide plains for agriculture and ample upland pasturage for flocks and herds; it is not, like Greece, cut by mountain ranges into winding valleys and tiny plains. There are fewer good harbors, however, so that the people turned to agriculture and the raising of live stock earlier than to sea trade. In Chapter I we studied the conditions of Europe in the Prehistoric Age. We must now see how Italy was the first region in western Europe to reach a high degree of civilization.

177. Indo-European Peoples enter Italy. Probably not long after the Greeks had pushed southward into the Peloponnesus (§§ 78–79) the western tribes of Indo-European blood had entered the Italian peninsula. The most important group, which settled in the central and southern parts of the peninsula, was the Italic tribes, the earliest Italians.

We remember that the Greeks, in conquering the Ægean, took possession of a highly civilized region. This was not the case

with the Indo-European invaders of Italy. They found the western Mediterranean world still without civilization. It had no architecture, no fine buildings, no fortified cities, only the rudest arts and industries, no writing, no literature, and no organized governments.

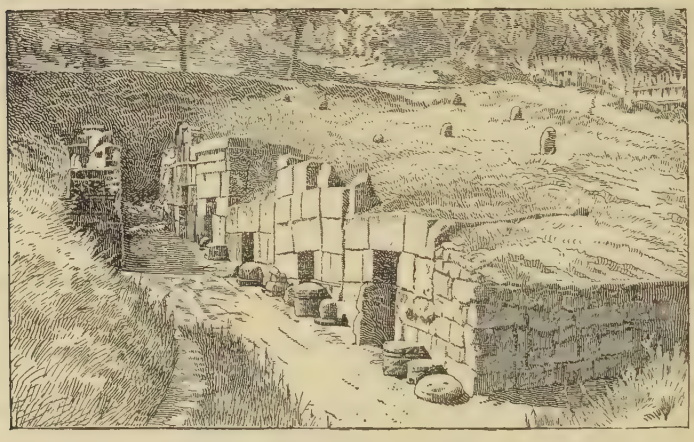
178. The Three Western Rivals confronting the Italic Tribes. Besides the Italic invaders three other rival peoples gradually came into the western Mediterranean world. The *first* of these was a bold race of sea rovers whom we call the Etruscans. Their origin is still uncertain, but no matter where they came from they were settled in Italy by 1000 B. C. They finally gained full control of the west coast from the Bay of Naples almost to Genoa and held the inland country to the Adriatic Sea and the Alps (see map, p. 122).

The Carthaginians were the *second* of the three rivals of the Italic tribes. We remember how the Phœnicians carried their commerce far into the western Mediterranean after 1000 B. C. (§ 83). On the African coast opposite Sicily they established a flourishing commercial city called Carthage. It soon became the leading power in the western Mediterranean.

While the Carthaginians were endeavoring to make the western Mediterranean their own, the Italic peoples saw the *third* of their rivals invading the West. These were the Greeks. We have already followed the Greek colonies as they founded their city-states along the coast of southern Italy and in Sicily in the eighth century B.C. (§ 91). The strongest of all the western Greek cities was Syracuse.

179. Greek Colonies bring Civilization into the Western Mediterranean. Although the western Greeks, like those in the homeland, fought among themselves and failed to unite in a strong and permanent state, they nevertheless brought civilization to Italy. Accordingly, fifteen hundred years after the barbarous Italic tribes had first settled in Italy there grew up on the south of them a wonderful world of Greek civilization. We shall now follow the career of the barbarous Italic tribes of central Italy under the leadership of Rome, and watch them slowly gaining

power and civilization, as they were influenced first by the Etruscans on their *north* and then by the Greeks on the *south* of them, and finally coming into mortal rivalry with the Carthaginians.

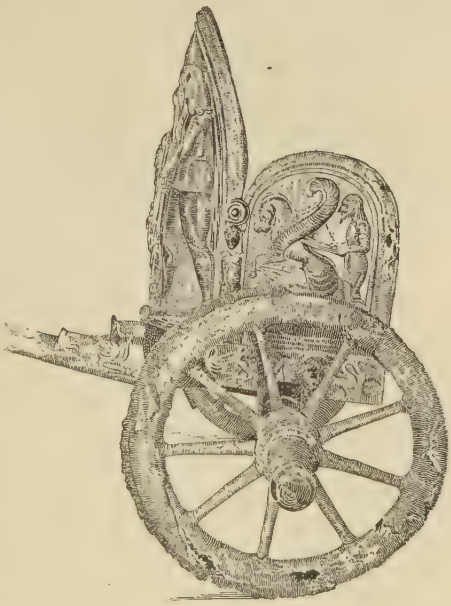


A Street of Etruscan Tombs at Ancient Cære not far North of Rome

The tomb-chamber contained a sarcophagus, in which the body was laid often accompanied with jewelry of gold and silver, furniture, implements, and weapons, besides beautiful vases. The walls of the chambers were in many cases painted with decorative scenes from the life of the Etruscans and from scenes of Greek mythology, learned by the Etruscans from their intercourse with the Greeks. The Etruscans buried here lived in a strong walled town, of which the ruins lie near by. Their manufactures, especially in bronze, flourished, and they carried on profitable commerce through their harbor town, only a few miles below their city. In one of these tombs the name of the deceased is inscribed on the wall as "Tarkhnas," which can be nothing else than Tarquinius, the name preserved in Roman tradition as that of the latest kings of Rome

180. Early Rome. On the south bank of the Tiber, not far from the sea (see map, p. 120), there was a group of Italic tribes known as the Latins. In the days when the Etruscan sea raiders first landed on the shores north of the Tiber these Latin tribes had occupied a plain less than thirty by forty miles. They called it "Latium," whence their own name, "Latins."

When these Latin peasants needed weapons or tools they were obliged to carry their grain or oxen to a trading post on the Tiber, ten or twelve miles from its mouth. On the low marshy ground, encircled by the hills, was an open-air market, which they called the *Forum*, where Latin peasants could meet Etruscan traders and exchange grain or oxen for the metal tools or weapons they wished. Such must have been the condition of the humble market village called Rome about 1000 B.C.



Etruscan Chariot of Bronze

This magnificent chariot is the finest example that has been discovered of Etruscan skill in bronze. It was found in an Etruscan tomb and is now in the possession of the Metropolitan Museum of New York. It probably dates from the sixth century B.C.

181. Occupation of Rome by the Etruscans (about 750 B.C.). Perhaps as early as 750 B.C. one of the Etruscan princes crossed the Tiber, drove out the Latin chieftain, and took possession of Rome and its stronghold on the Palatine. Etruscan kings soon extended their power over the plain of Latium. Thus Rome became a city-kingdom under an Etruscan king, like the other Etruscan cities which stretched from Capua far north to the harbor of Genoa. Although Rome was ruled by a line of Etruscan kings for probably two centuries and a half, it must be borne in mind that the population of Latium which the Etruscan kings governed continued to be Latin and to speak the Latin tongue.

182. Expulsion of the Etruscan Kings of Rome (about 500 B.C.). The Etruscan kings introduced great improvements in Rome, but their cruelty and tyranny finally caused their Latin subjects to revolt against them and drive them out of the city. The two centuries and a half of Etruscan rule had left their mark on Rome, however, for the Etruscans had long traded with the Greeks and had become familiar with their industries, art, and architecture. Evidences of Etruscan influence are still to be found in Italy today (see cuts on pages 118 and 119; also *Ancient Times*, Fig. 232).

II. The Early Roman Republic: its Government

183. Greek Influence in Rome. The Latins were also directly influenced by the Greeks, because ships from the Greek cities of southern Italy were becoming more and more common in the Tiber. The Roman traders had gradually learned to scribble memoranda of their own, using the letters which they found in the bills they received from the Greek merchants. Greek letters were adopted as the Roman alphabet, slightly changed to suit the Latin language. In this way the oriental alphabet was carried one step further in the long westward journey which finally made it (after some changes) the alphabet with which this book is printed (see table on page 58).

As the trade of the Romans increased it seemed inconvenient to pay for goods with grain or oxen as formerly. At length, about a hundred and fifty years after the Etruscan kings had been driven out, the Romans began to issue copper coins.

The rather coldly calculating mind of the Roman lacked the vivid imagination of the Greeks, which had created the beautiful Greek statues and dramas. The Romans were better fitted for great achievements in political and legal organization than for new developments in religion, art, and literature, or discoveries in science. Let us now see how the practical sagacity of the Roman developed the Roman State.

184. Establishment of the Roman Republic; Consuls and Tribunes. When the Etruscan kings were expelled from Rome,

the nobles, called *patricians*, were in control of the government. The patricians agreed that two of their number should be *elected* as heads of the State. These two magistrates, called *consuls*, who were both to have the same powers, were to serve for a year only and then give way to two others. This new state was a *republic*, of which the consuls were the presidents, for the

A

B

SPECIMENS OF EARLY ROMAN COPPER MONEY

In the time of Alexander the Great (second half of the fourth century B.C.) the Romans found it too inconvenient to continue paying their debts in goods, especially in cattle. They therefore cast copper in blocks, each block with the figure of an ox upon it (see *A*, above), to indicate its value. The Roman word for cattle (*pecus*) was the origin of one of their words for property (*pecunia*) and has descended to us in our common word "pecuniary." These blocks were unwieldy, and influenced by the Greeks the Romans then cast large disks of copper (*B*, above), which also were very ponderous

people had a voice in electing them. But as only patricians could serve as consuls, their government tended to rouse dissatisfaction among the common people (called the *plebs*, compare our "plebeian"). The plebs finally refused to submit to the oppression of the patricians, and revolted against it.

185. The Tribunes Defenders of the People. The patricians were unable to get on without the help of the people as soldiers in their frequent wars. They therefore agreed to give the people a larger share in the government by allowing them to elect a new kind of officials, called *tribunes*. These had the right to veto the action of any officer of the government—even that of the consuls themselves. When any citizen was treated unjustly by a consul he had the privilege of appealing to one of the tribunes.

186. Growing Body of Government Officials. It gradually became necessary to create new officers for various kinds of business. To take care of the government funds treasury officials called *quæstors* were appointed. Officials called *censors* were required to keep lists of the people and to look after their daily conduct and see that nothing improper was permitted. Our own use of the word "censor" is derived from these Roman officials. For the decision of legal cases judges called *prætors* were appointed to assist the consuls. In times of great national danger it was customary to appoint some revered and trustworthy leader as the supreme ruler of the State. He was called the *Dictator*, but he could hold his power for only a brief period.

187. The Senate and the Struggle of Plebs and Patricians. The consuls had great power and influence in all government matters, but they were much influenced by a council of patricians called the Senate (from Latin, *senex*, meaning "old man"). The patricians enjoyed the exclusive right to serve as consuls, to sit in the Senate, and to hold almost all the offices created to carry on the business of government.

The struggle of the common people to win their rights from the wealthy and powerful therefore continued. It was a struggle like that which we have followed in Athens and the other Greek states, but at Rome it reached a much wiser and more successful settlement. The citizens of Rome insisted upon having their rights, and without civil war or bloodshed they secured them, to a large extent, in the course of the first two centuries after the founding of the Republic.

188. The Twelve Tables; Control of Legislation by the People. About fifty years after the establishment of the Republic the earliest Roman laws were put in writing and engraved upon twelve tablets of bronze (450 B.C.). But at the same time the people demanded the right to share in the making of *new* laws.

The plebs succeeded in shaking off the legal power of the Senate to control their action, and the assemblies of the people became the lawmaking bodies of the Roman State. In this way they gradually secured a fairer share of the public lands. Most

ITALY
AND ADJACENT LANDS
before
THE SUPREMACY OF ROME
Scale of Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50 100 150
Etruscans
Italians
Carthaginians
Gaul, Liguria, Apulia and Calabria
Greek Colonies are indicated by underlining names in blue
8° 10° 12° 14° 16° 18°
46° 44° 42°
ALPS
Ticinus R.
Mt. Cenis
Milan
Po R.
CISALPINE GAUL
REGION OF PO R. PILE VILLAGES
LIGURIA
Genoa
APENNINE MTS.
Aquileia
Venice
ADRIATIC SEA
ILLYRIA
Rubicon R.
Ariminum
Metaurus R.
Ancona
Sentinum
Arnus R.
Pisa
Florence
Tiber R.
UMBRIA
PICENUM
Lake Trasimene
Clusium
Asculum
ETRURIA
ETRUSCANS
Sabines
CORSICA
Veii
Æquians
Tibur
Rome
Præneste
FRENTANI

SARDINIA
ETRUSCAN OR
TYRRHENIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Capua
Vesuvius
Cumæ
Capri
Naples
Misenum
Bay of Naples
Pompeii
CAMPANIA
APPIAN WAY
Tarentum
Brundisium
CALABRIA
Poseidonia
or Pæstum
LUCANIA
Metapontum
Heraclea
GULF OF
TARENTUM
GREECE
Croton
Lacinian Cape
Locri
Messina
Rhegium
Strait of Messina
Segesta
Taormina
Mt. Ætna
SICILY
Henna
Catana
Agrigentum
Syracuse
Utica
Hippo
Carthage
AFRICA
Zama
40°
38°
36°
8°
10°
Longitude East 12° from Greenwich
14°
16°
THE M.-N. WORKS, BUFFALO

important of all, new laws increased the rights of the people to hold office. In the end Roman citizens elected their plebeian neighbors as censors and quæstors, as judges, and finally even as consuls and members of the Senate.

189. Importance of the Roman Senate. By far the larger part of the Roman citizens, however, lived too far away to come up to the city and vote. Feeling, too, their own ignorance of public affairs, the Roman citizens were not unwilling that important public questions should be settled by the Senate. Thus the Roman Senate became a large committee of experienced statesmen, guiding and controlling the Roman State. They formed the greatest council of rulers which ever grew up in the ancient world, or perhaps in any age.

III. The Expansion of the Roman Republic and the Conquest of Italy

190. Early Struggles of the Republic. It was a tiny nation which began its uncertain career after the expulsion of the Etruscan kings about 500 B.C. The territory of the Roman Republic thus far comprised only the city with the neighboring fields for a very few miles around. On the other side of the Tiber lived the dreaded Etruscans, and on the Roman side of the river, all around the little republic, lived the Latin tribes, only loosely united with Rome by treaty.

Fortunately for the Romans, within a generation after the foundation of the Republic the Greek fleet of Syracuse utterly destroyed the Etruscan fleet (474 B.C.). Later the Etruscans were attacked from the north by the Gauls, who were at this time pouring over the Alpine passes into the valley of the Po. This weakening of the Etruscans probably saved Rome from destruction. By 400 B.C., or a little after, the Romans had conquered and taken possession of a fringe of new territory on all sides, which protected them from their enemies.

In this new territory the Romans planted colonies of citizens—mostly farmers cultivating the new lands—or granted citizenship

or other valuable privileges to the conquered population. From the annexed districts Rome could draw an ever-increasing body of brave and hardy citizen-soldiers. It was this steady agricultural expansion of Rome which in a little over two centuries after the expulsion of the Etruscan kings made the little republic on the Tiber mistress of all Italy.

191. Capture of Rome by the Gauls (382 B.C.). The second century of Roman expansion opened with a fearful catastrophe, which very nearly accomplished the complete destruction of the nation. In the first two decades after 400 B.C. the barbarian Gauls of the North, who had been overrunning the territory of the Etruscans, finally reached the lower Tiber, defeated the Roman army, and entered the city. Unable, however, to capture the citadel on the Capitol Hill, the Gauls at length agreed to accept a ransom of gold and to return northward, where they settled in the valley of the Po. But they still remained a serious danger to the Romans.

192. Subjugation of the Latin Tribes (338 B.C.). As Rome recovered from this disaster it was evident that the city needed fortifications, and for the first time masonry walls were built around it. Alarmed at Rome's growing power, the Latin tribes now endeavored to break away from the control of the powerful walled city. In the two years' war which resulted the city was completely victorious. Rome thus gained the undisputed leadership of the Latin tribes.

The year 338 B.C., in which this important event took place, also witnessed the defeat of the Greek cities at the hands of Philip of Macedonia (§ 153). In the same year, therefore, both the Greeks and the Latins saw themselves conquered and falling under the leadership of a single state—the Greeks under that of Macedonia, the Latins under that of Rome.

193. Samnite Wars (325–290 B.C.) **and the Battle of Sentinum** (295 B.C.). Meantime another formidable foe, a group of Italic tribes called the Samnites, had been taking possession of the mountains inland from Rome. By 325 B.C. a fierce war broke out between the Romans and the Samnites. It lasted with

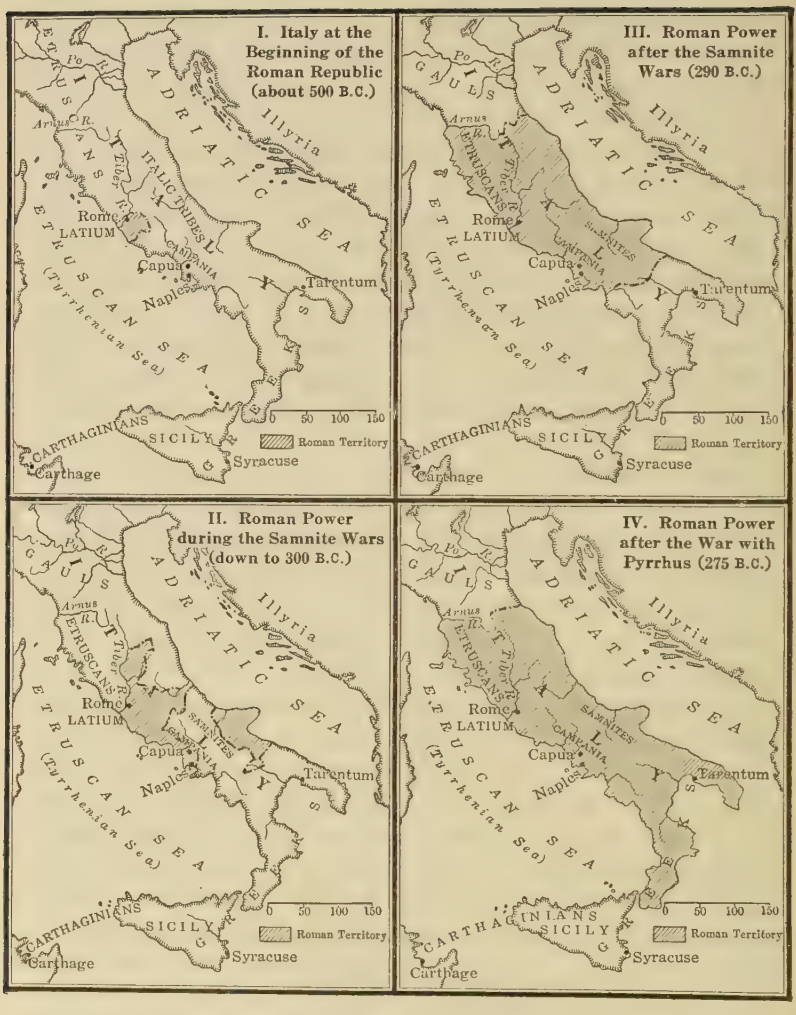
interruptions for a generation. The Romans lost several battles, but finally crushed the Samnites (295 B.C.) in a fierce battle at Sentinum. This victory not only gave the Romans possession of central Italy, but it made them the leading power in the whole peninsula.

194. Rome Mistress of Central and Northern Italy. The Etruscans were unable to longer maintain themselves as a leading power. One by one their cities were taken by the Romans, or they entered into alliance with Rome. The intruding Gallic barbarians were beaten off, though the Gauls who had settled in the north of the Italian peninsula continued to hold the Po valley. The northern boundary of the Roman conquests was therefore along the Arnus River, south of the Apennines. The Romans were already supreme from the Arnus to the Greek cities of southern Italy.

195. The War with Pyrrhus (280–275 B.C.) and Fall of the Greeks in Italy. The remaining three great rivals in the western Mediterranean world were now the Romans, the Greek colonists, and the Carthaginians. Alarmed at the threatening expansion of Roman power the Greek colonies endeavored to unite, and sent an appeal for help to Pyrrhus, the vigorous and able king of Epirus, just across from Italy.

Leading a powerful army, Pyrrhus was a highly dangerous foe. His purpose was to form a great nation of the western Greeks in Sicily and Italy. He completely defeated the Romans in two battles. But the Greeks disagreed among themselves, as they always did at critical times. Pyrrhus, thus poorly supported, found himself unable to inflict a decisive defeat on the Romans and returned before long to Epirus. One by one the helpless Greek cities of Italy then surrendered to the Roman army, for they had no choice but to accept alliance with the Romans. Thus ended all hope of a great Greek nation in the West.

This long period of conquest and expansion extended over about two centuries and a quarter (500–275 B.C.). *Thenceforward there were but two rivals in the western Mediterranean world—Rome and Carthage.*



Expansion of Roman Power in Italy

196. Rome's Allies and Colonies. Having conquered Italy as far north as the Po, Rome had to make some arrangement for governing her new possessions. She *annexed* perhaps a sixth of the territory to pay her war expenses and supply her citizens with land. But many of the defeated cities were granted a sort of half citizenship, which entitled them to the full protection of the Roman government in their business, but did not permit them to vote. Such cities were called *allies*. In exchange for the protection of the powerful Roman state the allies were willing to place their troops at Rome's disposal. Rome also continued her policy of founding *colonies* throughout the conquered territory. So all Italy was dotted with such colonies made up of Roman citizens.

QUESTIONS

I. Discuss the geography of the western Mediterranean world; of Italy. Who were the Italic tribes? Name the four rival peoples of the western Mediterranean world and tell something of each.

How did Rome originate? Do you know the story of Romulus and Remus? What people furnished the first kings of Rome? What kind of civilization did the Etruscans have? When were they expelled from Rome? What is a republic and from what does the word come?

II. Tell about Greek influences among the Romans. What took the place of the expelled Etruscan kings? What did the government of Rome become? How did the people gain power? the Senate?

III. Describe the Roman policy of expansion. Discuss the war with the Gauls; with the Latins; with the Samnites; with the Greeks and Pyrrhus. What was the result? What two rivals remained?

CHAPTER X

ROME AND CARTHAGE

I. Commercial Power of Carthage; the First Punic War

197. Development of Business Interests in Rome. Rome's conquest of the Greek cities of southern Italy had brought her into contact with a far higher civilization than she had previously known. She was particularly influenced by Greek business enterprise. For a time the Romans used Greek silver coins, but by the year 268 B. C. they began for the first time to issue silver coins of their own. Just as had happened in Athens earlier, a moneyed class now made its appearance in Rome. This class, however, was made up largely of merchants. There was no considerable manufacturing carried on, as at Athens,—Rome was a great center of shipping and commerce rather than an industrial city.

198. Commercial Supremacy of Carthage. But when the ever-increasing numbers of Roman merchant ships issued from the Tiber, they found the western Mediterranean already occupied by their great rival Carthage. As the trade of Carthage had increased she had extended her control eastward and westward along the African coast, and her enterprising merchants had even seized southern Spain, with its valuable silver mines. The Carthaginians did not believe in free trade, but proposed to monopolize all the business they could for themselves. So they closed the ports under their control to all foreign ships. Vessels of other cities venturing into the western Mediterranean harbors were promptly rammed and sunk by Carthaginian warships sent out to protect the business of their city. With increasing vexation

the merchants of Italy realized that the Carthaginians were in a position to prevent any great extension of Roman foreign trade and that their rivals held even the markets of Sicily, close to the Italian mainland. So after conquering Italy, Rome seemed driven on to extend her borders still farther in order to give free play to her growing commerce and trade. A deadly conflict between Rome and Carthage seemed inevitable. When it came it proved a long one, lasting with interruptions for a hundred and eighteen years and closing with the complete destruction of the great and flourishing African city. The three prolonged wars between Rome and Carthage are called the Punic wars (from the Latin word *Punicus*, meaning "Phœnician," the Carthaginians being Phœnicians).

199. Carthage: its Government and Army. Carthage seems to have been a very splendid and luxurious city when the wars with Rome began. It was in area perhaps three times the size of its rival. Its government was in the hands of rich business men, who ruled the Carthaginian empire in their own interests. Centuries of shrewd guidance on their part had built up a great state far exceeding in power any of the Greek states, not excepting Athens itself. The merchants had to rely on hired soldiers, for there seems not to have been any large class of farmers cultivating the land, from which Carthage could collect an army of citizen-soldiers, as Rome was able to do. So the forces of Carthage were much less trustworthy, no matter how ably led, than those of the Roman Republic.

200. The Roman Army. The Romans could put an army of over three hundred thousand men in the field made up of her own *citizens*. She had in addition about an equal number which she could draw from her *allies* (§ 196). The Roman forces far exceeded in strength any army ever before organized in the Mediterranean world. The Romans were, moreover, very dexterous with their short swords and javelins as well as with their spears, and they had so improved the group formations, phalanxes (§ 152), that they moved about very much more easily than the older ones. So the Romans became adepts in the art of war, and this accounts

A Roman Soldier

The figure of the soldier is carved upon a tombstone, erected in his memory by his brother. His weapons are his spear, which he holds in his extended right hand with point upward, and his heavy short sword, which he wears girded high on his right side. As defensive equipment he has a helmet, a leathern corselet stopping midway between the waist and knees, and a shield

for the many victories of their "legions," as the divisions of the army were called. Although the Romans had already had long experience in fighting on land, they had now to accustom themselves to fighting on the sea. It took some time for them to learn how to build men-of-war and manage them effectively. But without a sea power they could, of course, make no headway against Carthage.

201. The Opening of the First Punic War (264 B.C.). The Romans soon realized that the struggle with Carthage could not be avoided. The immediate cause of the outbreak of the First Punic War was the seizure of Messina by a Carthaginian garrison. Messina commanded the strait which separated the island of Sicily from the mainland. This move of the Carthaginians seemed to be a sort of insult to the Romans, who now took a memorable step. For the first time Roman troops went beyond the mainland of Italy, crossed the narrow strait, and secured a footing in Sicily. The struggle with Carthage had begun (264 B.C.).

202. General Course of the War (264–241 B.C.). The Romans were able to form an alliance with the famous old Greek city of Syracuse and so got possession of the eastern part of Sicily, but the war proved a very long one, lasting nearly a quarter of a century. Five years elapsed before the Romans got their first great fleet of one hundred and twenty

warships ready. In spite of their inexperience in naval fighting they gained some victories over their rivals; but then they had much ill fortune, for their ships were either lost in storms or destroyed by the Carthaginians, and they had to keep building new fleets, only to have them destroyed in turn. After twenty years the treasury was empty and Rome seemed at the end of its resources. Finally, in 242 B.C., a last fleet of two hundred battleships was built and equipped by private subscriptions of patriotic Romans and put to sea. This time the Carthaginian navy was defeated and broken up. The Carthaginians were then no longer able to transport reënforcements to Sicily and at last were forced to make peace on Rome's terms.

203. End of the First Punic, or Sicilian, War. The Romans had suffered much in the long war and imposed very hard conditions. The Carthaginians were required to give up Sicily and the neighboring islands and pay within ten years a huge war indemnity of thirty-two hundred talents,—over three and a half million dollars. This was a far larger sum in those days than it would be now. For the first time Rome now held territory outside the Italian peninsula, and this was but the beginning of a complete conquest of the Mediterranean countries.

II. The War with Hannibal, or Second Punic War

204. Interval between the First and Second Punic Wars. About a quarter of a century elapsed before war between the great rivals broke out again. Meanwhile both of them devoted themselves to increasing their strength. Shortly after the close of the first war Rome took possession of the large islands of Corsica and Sardinia. These, with Sicily, gave her three outposts against Carthage. At the same time she completed the conquest of the Italian peninsula by conquering the Gauls to the north of the river Po and extending her boundaries to the Alps.

205. Hannibal's Audacious Plan for conquering Rome. To offset this increase of Rome's power Carthage turned her attention to the conquest of Spain, to which the Romans also laid

claim. One of the Carthaginian generals in Spain, Hannibal, a young man only twenty-four years of age, determined on the bold plan of leading a Carthaginian army around through southern Gaul and across the Alps into Italy, where he hoped to crush Rome by a direct land attack instead of having to rely, as hitherto, on victories by sea.

206. Opening of the Second Punic War (218 B.C.). It was late autumn when Hannibal reached the Alps. Overwhelmed by snowstorms; struggling over a steep and dangerous trail, sometimes so narrow that the rocks had to be cut away to make room for his elephants; looking down over dizzy precipices, or up to snow-covered heights where hostile natives rolled great stones down upon the troops, the discouraged army of Hannibal toiled on day after day, exhausted, cold, and hungry. At every point along the straggling line where help was most needed the young Carthaginian was always present, encouraging and guiding his men. But when they issued from the Alpine pass and entered Italy in the upper valley of the Po, they had suffered such losses that they were reduced to some thirty-four thousand men.

With this little army the dauntless Carthaginian youth had entered the territory of the strongest military power of the time—a nation which could now call to her defense over seven hundred thousand men, citizens and allies. Hannibal, however, was thoroughly acquainted with the most highly developed methods of warfare, and the exploits of Alexander a century earlier were familiar to him. On the other hand, the Roman consuls, commanding the Roman armies, were simply magistrates like our mayors. They were no match for the crafty young Carthaginian.

207. Hannibal's Early Successes. In spite of his weakened army Hannibal began to gain victories over the Roman troops in northern Italy and was joined by many of the Gauls whom Rome had so recently conquered. On the shores of Lake Trasimene he surprised a Roman army under the consul Flaminius, and the awful news reached Rome that their army was cut to pieces and its leader killed. Hannibal might now have advanced on Rome itself, but he had neither the troops nor the machinery for a

siege and so preferred to wait for another victory in the hope that the allies of Rome might be induced to desert her and help him besiege the city.

208. Battle of Cannæ (216 B.C.). The Romans now appointed a Dictator, a prudent old citizen named Fabius. He so irritated the Roman people by his caution that he was known as the "hesitator," and we still speak of a policy of delay as a *Fabian* policy. Nothing of importance happened for a year, when in 216 B.C. the newly elected Roman consuls collected an army of nearly seventy thousand men and marched southward, where Hannibal and his army were operating.

At Cannæ the Romans met one of the most terrible reverses in their history. Hannibal managed skillfully to surround their army, and what ensued was simply a slaughter of the doomed Romans. When night came the Roman army was annihilated. Ex-consuls, senators, and thousands of the best citizens of Rome had fallen in this frightful battle. Every family in Rome was in mourning. Of the gold rings worn by Roman knights as an indication of their rank Hannibal is reported to have sent a bushel to Carthage.

209. Hannibal's Statesmanship versus Roman Power. Thus this masterful young Carthaginian, within two years after his arrival in Italy and before he was thirty years of age, had defeated his mighty antagonist. Within a few years southern Italy, including the Greek cities and even Syracuse in Sicily, forsook Rome and joined Hannibal. But opposing him was the dogged resolution and the seemingly inexhaustible numbers of the Romans. It was a battle of giants for mastery, for the victor in this struggle would without any question become the greatest power in the Mediterranean. In spite of Hannibal's successes, the steadiness and fine leadership of the Roman Senate held central Italy loyal to Rome. The Romans were finally compelled to include slaves and mere boys in the new armies which were formed. With these forces the Romans proceeded to besiege and capture, one after another, the allied cities which had revolted against Rome and joined Hannibal.

210. Defeat of Hannibal by Scipio (202 B.C.). For a time Hannibal struggled on in southern Italy. Meanwhile the Romans, taught by the defeat of their consuls, had given the command of their forces in Spain to Scipio, one of the ablest of their younger leaders and a trained soldier. He drove the Carthaginians entirely out of Spain, thus cutting off their chief supply both of money and of troops. In Scipio the Romans had at last found a general with the masterful qualities which make a great military leader. He demanded of the Senate that he be sent to Africa to invade the dominions of Carthage as Hannibal had invaded those of Rome.

By 203 B.C. Scipio had twice defeated the Carthaginian forces in Africa, and Carthage was forced to call Hannibal home. He had spent fifteen years on the soil of Italy, and the great struggle between the almost exhausted rivals was now to be decided in Africa. At Zama, inland from Carthage, the final battle of the war took place. The great Carthaginian was at last met by an equally great Roman, and Scipio won the battle.

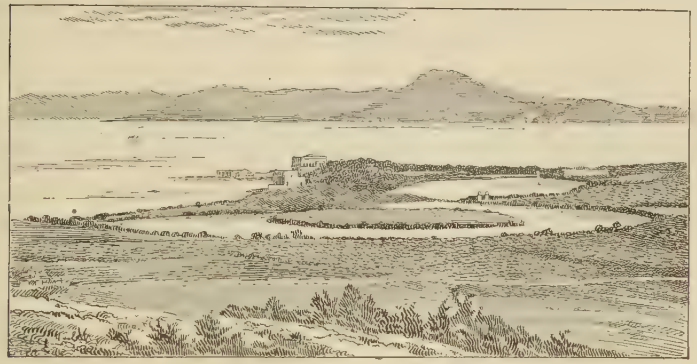
211. Treaty ending the War (201 B.C.); **the Fate of Hannibal.** The victory over Carthage made Rome the leading power in the whole ancient world. In the treaty which followed the battle of Zama the Romans forced Carthage to pay a crushing indemnity of ten thousand talents (over $11,000,000) in fifty years and to surrender all her warships except ten triremes. But, what was worse, she lost her independence as a nation, and according to the treaty she could not make war anywhere without the consent of the Romans.

Hannibal escaped after he lost the battle at Zama. He was one of the greatest and most gifted leaders in all history—a lion-hearted man, so strong of purpose that only a great nation like Rome could have crushed him. Rome still feared Hannibal and compelled the Carthaginians to expel him. As a man of fifty he went into exile in the East, where we shall find him stirring up the successors of Alexander to combine against Rome (§ 214).

212. Third Punic War; Destruction of Carthage (146 B.C.). Cato, a famous old-fashioned senator, was so convinced that

Carthage was still a danger to Rome that he concluded all his speeches in the Senate with the words, "Carthage must be destroyed." For over fifty years more the merchants of Carthage were permitted to traffic in the western Mediterranean, and then the ruthless hand of Rome was laid upon the doomed city for the last time.

Rome eagerly seized an excuse to renew hostilities and attack her old enemy. In the three years' war that followed,



THE HARBORS OF CARTHAGE AS THEY ARE TODAY

Of the city destroyed by the Romans almost nothing has survived. It was rebuilt under Julius Cæsar, but, as we see here, very little of this later city has survived. Thorough and systematic excavation would probably recover many valuable remains of ancient Carthaginian civilization, of which we know so little

the beautiful city was finally captured and utterly destroyed (146 B.C.). Its territories were taken by Rome and reorganized into the Province of Africa. Thus ended the long struggle with a complete victory for Rome.

213. Summary. The struggle of centuries between the original four rivals in the western Mediterranean—the Etruscans, Greeks, Carthaginians, and Romans—ended in the triumph of the seemingly weakest of all, the city on the Tiber. Racially the western wing of the Indo-Europeans on the *north* side of the Mediterranean had proved victorious over the Semitic peoples on the *south*

side. The western Mediterranean world was now under the leadership of a single great nation, the Romans. We must now turn back and review the relations of Rome with the eastern Mediterranean countries, where, as we have seen, civilization had developed under Greek influence to an unprecedented height.

QUESTIONS

I. How did Carthage interfere with Rome's business interests? Describe the government and territorial extent of Carthage. How was the Roman army made up? Describe the origin and cause of the First Punic War.

II. What was Hannibal's plan for conquering Rome? What were the difficulties of his march from Spain to northern Italy? What was Hannibal's policy in Italy? How did the Romans succeed in defeating Hannibal? What was the outcome of the Punic Wars?

CHAPTER XI

EXTENSION OF ROMAN DOMINION AND ITS RESULTS

I. Conquest of the Eastern Mediterranean: New Problems

214. Alexander's Successors conquered by Rome (200–168 B.C.). While Rome had been making her conquests in the western Mediterranean, and slowly tightening her grip on her great rival Carthage, the successors of Alexander the Great had been struggling among themselves. It had occurred to Hannibal while he was fighting in Italy that he could strengthen himself by inducing the king of Macedonia to form an alliance with him against Rome. The Romans did not overlook this, and after their victory over Hannibal they sent an expedition across to Macedonia and defeated its army in the battle of Cynoscephalæ, in 197 B.C. The country was reduced to the position of a vassal of Rome. The Greek cities which had been brought under Macedonian control by Philip and Alexander the Great (§§ 153, 155) were now granted their freedom, but Rome continued to keep a strict eye on them.

This war with Macedonia brought the Romans into conflict with Antiochus the Great, the Seleucid king, who held a large part of the vast empire of Persia in Asia. A war with this powerful Asiatic empire was not a matter which the Romans could view without great anxiety. Moreover, Hannibal, a fugitive from Carthage, was now with Antiochus, giving him the benefit of his ability and long experience in fighting the Romans. Nevertheless at Magnesia in Asia Minor the West, led by Rome, overthrew the East, led by Antiochus (190 B. C.), and the lands of western Asia Minor submitted to Roman control.

Within twelve years (200–189 B.C.) Roman arms had reduced to the condition of vassal states *two* of the three great empires which succeeded Alexander in the East—Macedonia and Syria. As for Egypt, the *third*, it also before long became a dependency of Rome (168 B.C.).

215. Subjection of the Greeks. Although defeated, the eastern Mediterranean world, including the Greeks, long continued to give the Romans trouble. Then the Romans began harsh measures. The same year which saw the destruction of Carthage witnessed also the burning of Corinth by the Romans (146 B.C.). Those Greek states whose careers of glorious achievement in civilization we have followed were all reduced to the condition of Roman vassals.

216. Misgovernment of the Roman Provinces. The Romans had certainly shown extraordinary ability in conducting the wars that had built up their huge empire, which by this time reached all around the Mediterranean. Now they had the great problem of organizing a government to rule and control their vast possessions. Most of the newly acquired territories were organized as *provinces*, each under a Roman governor, who possessed almost unlimited powers. He had complete control of taxation in his province and could demand all that he thought necessary for his government and troops. These governors were commonly eager to make a fortune during their short term of office, usually a single year, and their rule often became a mere system of looting and robbery. The Senate soon found it necessary to have laws passed for the punishment of such evils, but these laws proved of little use in improving the conditions.

The evil effects of this situation were soon apparent. The provinces were filled with Roman business men whom we should call "loan-sharks." There were contractors called *publicans*, who were allowed to collect the taxes for the State at a great profit. We remember the common references to these publicans in the New Testament, where they are regularly classified with "sinners." These grafters plundered the provinces worse than the greedy Roman governors themselves.

SEQUENCE MAP SHOWING THE EXPANSION OF THE ROMAN P
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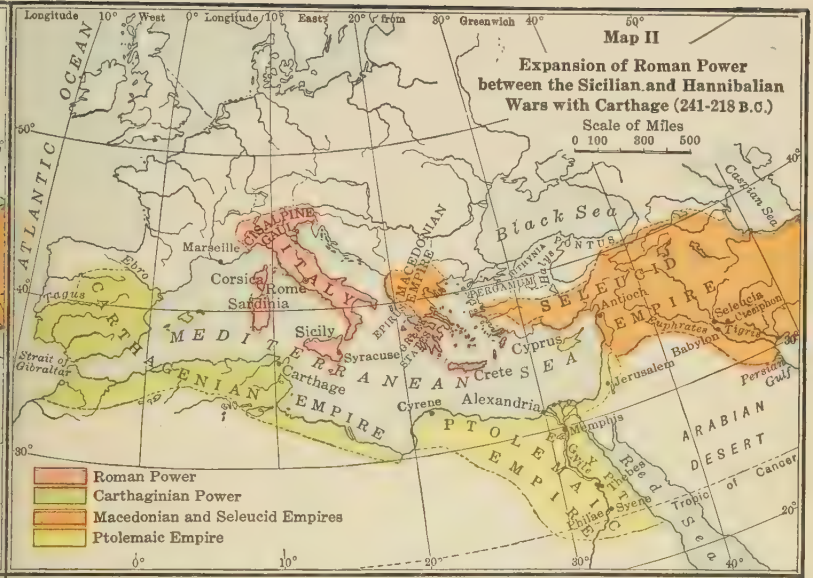
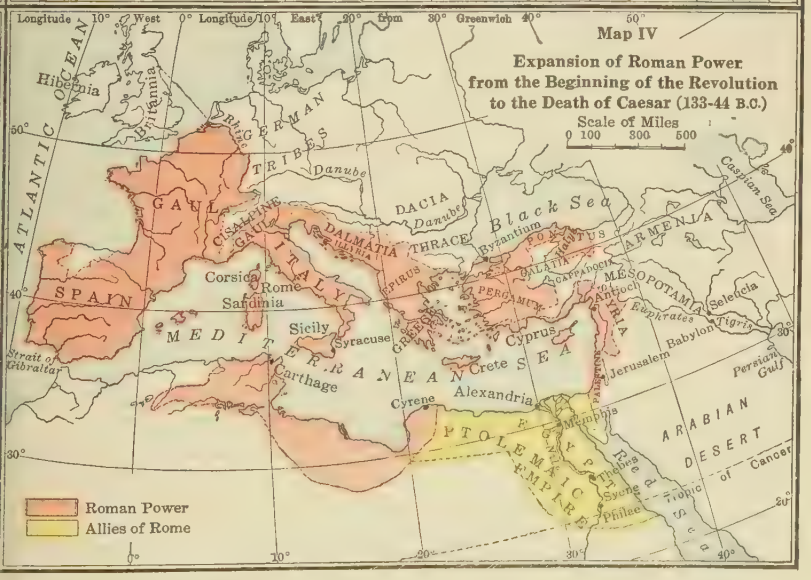
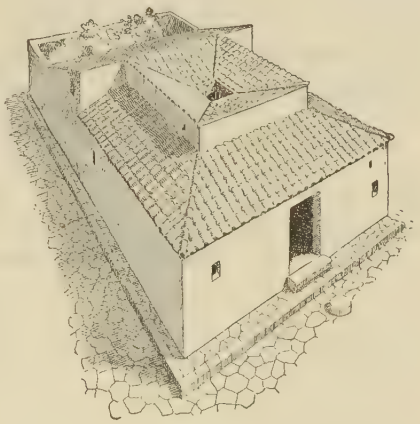




FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE WARS WITH CARTHAGE (264 B.C.)
CÆSAR (44 B.C.)

217. Rise of a Wealthy Class at Rome. As these people returned to Italy there grew up a wealthy class such as had been unknown there before. Their ability to buy resulted in a vast import trade to supply their demands. From the Bay of Naples to the mouth of the Tiber the sea was white with the sails of Roman ships converging on the docks of Rome. The men who controlled this traffic became wealthy merchants. To handle all the money in circulation banks were required. During the war with Hannibal the first banks appeared at Rome, occupying a line of booths on each side of the Forum. Under these influences Rome greatly changed.

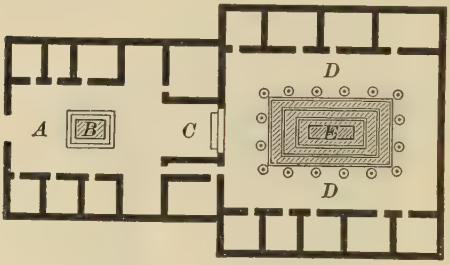


AN OLD ROMAN ATRIUM-HOUSE

There was no attempt at beautiful architecture, and the bare front showed no adornment whatever. The opening in the roof, which lighted the atrium, received the rainfall of a section of the roof sloping toward it, and this water collected in a pool built to receive it in the floor of the atrium below (see *B* in cut on page 140). The tiny area, or garden, shown in the rear was not common. It was here that the later Romans added the Hellenistic peristyle (see *D* in cut on page 140)

When a returned governor of Africa put up a showy new house, the citizen across the way who still lived in his father's old house began to be dissatisfied with it. For the old houses were built of sun-dried brick, and, like the settlers' cabins of early America, they had but one room, called the *atrium* (see cut on page 140). The Roman citizen of the new age had long before become familiar with the comfort, luxury, and beauty with which the Greek houses of southern Italy were filled. He therefore soon added a colonnaded Hellenistic court, with adjoining dining room, bedrooms, library, rest rooms, and kitchen.

218. The New Luxury at Rome. The original atrium was in the finer houses converted into a large and stately reception hall, where the master of the house could display statues, paintings, and other works of art seized in eastern cities. One of the Roman conquerors of Macedonia entered Rome on his return with two hundred and fifty wagon-loads of Greek statues and paintings.



PLAN OF A ROMAN HOUSE WITH PERISTYLE

The earliest Roman house had consisted of a single room, the atrium (*A*), with the pool for the rain water (*B*). Then a small alcove, or lean-to, was erected at the rear (*C*), as a room for the master of the house. Later the bedrooms on each side of the atrium were added. Finally, under the influence of Greek life, the garden court (*D*), with its surrounding colonnaded porch (peristyle) and a fountain in the middle (*E*), was built at the rear. Then a dining room, sitting room, and bedrooms were added, which opened on this court, and, being without windows, they were lighted from the court through the doors. In town houses it was quite easy to partition off a shop, or even a whole row of shops, along the front or side of the house, as in the Hellenistic house. The houses of Pompeii (see § 262 and Plate III, facing page 168) were almost all built in this way

The finest Roman residences were sometimes supplied with running water and sanitary conveniences. Some of them had a system of heating by means of tile pipes conducting into the different rooms the heat from a furnace, very different from the old charcoal brazier on which the Romans had formerly depended.

219. Influence of the Art and Literature of Greece on Rome. The cultivated Romans naturally admired the beautiful Greek works of art, which some of their artists sought to imitate and copy. The Greek theater became popular, too, and Roman playwrights, like Plautus and Terence, adapted Greek comedies to the taste of Roman audiences, who laughed heartily at the old Greek jokes.

The Romans had formerly done little to educate their children in any systematic way. Now schools began to appear, frequently

conducted by Greeks. A Latin translation of Homer was often used as a textbook, and in this way Roman children learned something of the legends of Troy and of the wily Odysseus. Roman writers also set down the picturesque legends of early Rome and of its founding by Romulus and Remus. A Roman general brought back the books collected by the Macedonian king and founded the first private library in Rome. Wealthy and cultivated Romans now began to provide special rooms in their houses for books, and they often read and spoke Greek almost as well as Latin.

II. Signs of Degeneration in Town and Country

220. Gladiators and Races. Some of the old-fashioned Romans were greatly worried by the new luxury. Laws were passed to check it, but they amounted to little. During the Carthaginian wars there had been introduced an old Etruscan custom of single combats between condemned criminals or slaves, who fought to honor the funeral of some great Roman. These fighters came to be called "swordsmen" (*gladiators*, from a Latin word *gladius*, meaning "sword"). Officials in charge of the various public feasts, without waiting for a funeral, used to arrange a long program of such combats, sure of pleasing the people, gaining their votes, and thus securing election to higher offices. These barbarous and bloody spectacles took place in a great stone structure called an amphitheater. Combats between gladiators and wild beasts were finally introduced. The Romans also began to build enormous race tracks for chariot races (called circuses), surrounded by seats for vast numbers of spectators.

221. Political Corruption. The Roman politician now sought office chiefly with the hope of finally gaining the governorship of a province. There he might hope to retrieve his campaign expenses and make himself rich for life. The aspirant to office naturally took advantage of the habit that had grown up of distributing grain and bread among the poorer people, and sought, as the expression was, to make himself solid with the voters by means of "bread and circuses." There appears also to have been a great

deal of political bribery, and the laws directed against it seem to have had little effect in checking it.

222. Growth of Great Estates; Decline of Small Farms. The evils of the new wealth were not less evident outside of Rome. It was not thought proper for a Roman senator or noble to engage in any business. The most respectable form of wealth was land. Hence the successful Roman noble or capitalist bought farm after farm, which he combined into a great estate or plantation. Only here and there were still to be found groups of little homestead farms of the old Roman days. The small farm seemed in a fair way to disappear.

223. Slave Revolts and Disorders. It was impossible for a wealthy landowner to work these great estates with free, hired labor. Nor was he obliged to do so. From the close of Hannibal's war onward the Roman conquests had brought to Italy great numbers of captives of war. These unhappy prisoners were sold as slaves. The estates of Italy were now filled with them. The life of slaves on the great plantations was little better than that of beasts. When the supply of captives from the wars failed, slave pirates for many years carried on wholesale kidnaping in the Ægean and eastern Mediterranean.

Thus Italy and Sicily were fairly flooded with slaves. The brutal treatment which they received was so unbearable that at various places in Italy they finally rose against their masters. In central and southern Sicily the revolting slaves gathered some sixty thousand in number, slew their masters, captured towns, and set up a kingdom. It required a Roman consul at the head of an army and a war lasting several years to subdue them.

224. Evil Influences of the Long Wars of Conquest. Slave labor and the great wars were meantime further ruining the small farmers of Italy. Never has there been an age in which the terrible and desolating results of war have more tragically revealed the awful cost of military glory. Fathers and elder sons had been absent from home for years, holding their posts in the legions, fighting the battles which had brought Rome her great position as mistress of the world. The mothers, left to bring up the

younger children alone, saw the family scattered and drifting away from the little farm, till it was left forsaken.

225. Influx to the Cities. Too often as the returning soldier approached the spot where he was born he no longer found the house that had sheltered him in childhood. His family was gone, and his little farm, sold for debt, had been bought up by some wealthy Roman of the city. He cursed the rich men who had got possession of his land, and wandered up to the great city to look for free grain from the government, to enjoy the games and circuses, and to increase the poor class already there.

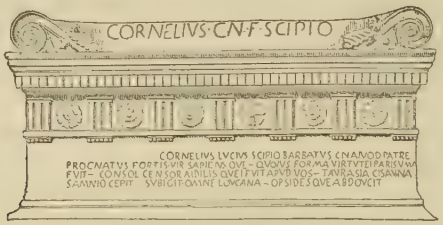
226. The Difficulties confronting Rome after she had gained World Power. The failure of the Roman Senate to organize a successful government for the empire they had conquered had brought the whole world of Mediterranean civilization dangerously near destruction. In the European background beyond the Alpine frontiers there were rumblings of vast movements among the Northern barbarians, threatening to descend as of old and completely overwhelm the civilization which for over three thousand years had been slowly built up by Orientals and Greeks and Romans in the Mediterranean world.

We stand at the point where the civilization of the Hellenistic world began to decline, after the destruction of Carthage and Corinth (146 B.C.). We are now to watch the Roman people struggling with three difficult and dangerous problems at the same time: first, the deadly internal hostility which we have seen growing up between rich and poor; second, the question of organizing a successful Roman government of the Mediterranean world while the dangerous internal struggle was going on; and third, in the midst of these grave responsibilities, the invasions of the barbarian hordes of the North. In spite of all these threatening dangers we shall see Rome gaining the needed organization which enabled it to hurl back the barbarians, to hold the northern frontiers for five hundred years, and thus to shield the civilization which had cost mankind so many centuries of slow progress—the civilization which, because it was so preserved by the Roman Empire, has become our own inheritance today.

QUESTIONS

I. Recall the partition of Alexander's empire after his death. What portions of Alexander's empire were conquered by the Romans? What difficulties did the Romans meet in governing their provinces? Describe the origin and habits of the wealthy class which now developed.

II. What were the new forms of public amusement which appeared at Rome? Compare political corruption among the Romans with that of today. What were the evil influences of the long wars of conquest? Why did the people leave the country for the cities? What problems confronted the Roman government as a result of their conquests?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CORNELIVS LVCIVS SCIPIO BARBATVS CNAIVOD PATRE
PROGNATVS FORTIS VIR SAPIENSQVE · QVOIVS FORMA VIRTVTEI PARISVMA
FVIT · CONSOL CENSOR AIDILIS QVEI VT APVD VOS · TAVRASIA CISAVNA
SAMNIO CEPIT SVBIGITQVE LVCANA · OPSIDESQVE ABDVCIT

NOTE. This illustration shows the beautiful stone sarcophagus of one of the early Scipios, found in the family tomb on the Appian Way. It is adorned with details of Greek architecture, which clearly indicate that it was done by a Greek artist. Verses in early Latin, on the side of the sarcophagus, contain praises of the departed Scipio.

CHAPTER XII

A CENTURY OF REVOLUTION AND THE END OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC (133–30 B.C.)

I. The Struggle between Senate and People

227. The Gracchi and their Attempted Reforms (133–121 B.C.). The crying needs of the farmer class in Italy failed to produce any effect on the blinded and selfish aristocrats who made up the Roman Senate. But the people found a leader in Tiberius Gracchus, the grandson of Scipio the hero of Zama. Elected tribune in 133 B.C., he was wont with passionate eloquence to remind the people of their wrongs. "You fight and die to give wealth and luxury to others. You are called the masters of the world, yet there is no clod of earth that you can really call your own." Tiberius Gracchus brought a law before the Assembly providing for a redistribution of the public lands and the protection of the farming class. But the Senate regarded him as a dangerous agitator, and he was slain by a mob of senators who rushed from their meeting place and attacked him and his supporters. This murderous deed was the prelude to a century of struggle between the leaders of the Senate and those of the people, which finally destroyed the Republic and led to the establishment of the Empire.

Ten years later Gaius, the brother of Tiberius Gracchus, undertook to force through similar reforms in behalf of the farmers and to reduce the power of the Senate. He too was killed in a riot. In spite of their failure these two brothers won enduring fame in their efforts to improve the lot of the people at large.

228. Marius, the People's Commander. The Gracchi had taught the people to look up to a leader, and this tendency was the beginning of the one-man power which was to develop in the

Roman Empire. The people now selected a military commander, for they saw that they must have an army to enforce their claims. Marius, whom they chose, was himself a man of the people and had once been a plowboy. It was fortunate that he had military ability, for two powerful German tribes, the Cimbrians and the Teutons, had crossed the northern frontiers of the Roman Empire and had defeated several Roman armies sent against them. Marius was able, however, to overwhelm and nearly destroy the German hosts in two battles in southern Gaul (102 B.C.). So a man of the people saved Rome from this new danger.

In order to increase his army Marius gave up the old habit of allowing only men of property to serve, and he took in the poor and penniless. These men became professional soldiers, and it was clear that the old days when Rome had relied on her citizens to defend her had passed.

229. The Senate chooses Sulla as its Defender. The Senate now set up a rival to Marius, Sulla, and gave him command of an army to be sent to fight in Asia Minor. But the people refused to agree to this and elected Marius as head of the expedition. Sulla then summoned his troops, marched on Rome, and took the city by force.

230. Revenge of Marius and his Death (86 B.C.). The Senate had triumphed, but after the departure of Sulla and his legions the people refused longer to submit. Marius, having entered Rome with troops, began a frightful massacre of the leading men of the senatorial party. The Senate, the first to sow seeds of violence in the murder of Tiberius Gracchus, now reaped a fearful harvest. Meantime Marius died (86 B.C.), but the leaders of the people ruled in Rome until the day of reckoning, which was sure to come on the return of Sulla.

231. Sulla gives the Senate Supreme Leadership (82–79 B.C.). Having spent several years carrying on a victorious campaign in Asia Minor, Sulla returned. On the way his army defeated the armies of the people, one after another, and Sulla entered Rome as master of the State, *without any legal power to justify such mastery*. By means of his troops he forced his own appointment

as Dictator (82 B.C.). His first action was to begin the systematic slaughter of the leaders of the people's party and the confiscation of their property. Then he forced the passage of a whole series of new laws which deprived the Assembly and the tribunes of their power and gave the supreme leadership of the State to the Senate.

Mon. Oct. 22 1923.

II. Overthrow of the Republic; Pompey and Cæsar

232. The People elect Pompey as their Leader. Some years later Sulla, who was a cruel and heartless defender of the aristocratic Senate, died, and the people began an agitation for the repeal of the laws which deprived them and their tribunes of all control over the government. They elected Pompey, a former officer of Sulla's, as their leader, and he became consul in 70 B.C. He managed to get the obnoxious laws repealed and gained a great reputation for himself by attacking and destroying the pirates who preyed on Roman commerce. He also gained victories in Asia Minor and Syria, where he crushed the remnants of the old kingdom of the Seleucids. Syria, including Palestine, became a Roman province.

233. Rise of Julius Cæsar. Meanwhile a new popular hero and opponent of the senatorial party had arisen in Rome, a nephew of Marius, Julius Cæsar, born in the year 100 B.C. On Pompey's return Cæsar sided with him, and with his support managed to be elected consul for the year 59 B.C. Cæsar aspired to become the head of the State and introduce many necessary reforms. But he had to have an army and so secured the appointment as governor of Gaul, much of which was still unconquered by the Romans.

234. Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul. Cæsar took charge of his new province in 58 B.C., and in the following eight years proved himself to be a commander of distinguished ability. He subdued the Gauls and conquered their territory from the Rhine westward to the ocean and the English Channel. He even crossed the Channel and invaded Britain as far as the Thames. He added

a vast dominion to the Roman Empire, comprising in general the territory of modern France and Belgium. We should not forget that his conquest brought Latin into France, and it is from Latin that modern French has developed.

Cæsar believed that Rome needed an able commander with an army behind him, who should make himself the permanent master of the Roman government and subdue all other competitors. He therefore steadily pursued this aim. One of his cleverest moves was the publication of a history of his campaigns in Gaul, which he had found time to write in the midst of dangerous marches and critical battles. Although it is one of the greatest works of Latin prose, the book was really a political pamphlet, intended to tell the Roman people the story of the vast conquests which they owed to their governor in Gaul. At present it is the best-known Latin reading book for beginners in that language.

Bust said to be a Portrait of Julius Cæsar

The ancient portraits commonly accepted as those of Julius Cæsar are really of uncertain identity

235. Pompey decides to support the Senate. The senators dreaded Cæsar's return and probable reëlection as consul. So they induced Pompey to desert the people's party and support the cause of the Senate. This led to a struggle between the two commanding generals, Cæsar and Pompey. The Senate ordered Cæsar to disband his army, but instead of obeying he led it across the little river Rubicon, which formed the southern boundary of his province, and marched on Rome. Pompey and the Senate were unprepared for this, and many of the senatorial party with their general decided to retire to Greece. Cæsar was elected consul and so could become the legal defender of Rome against the Senate and Pompey's army.

236. Cæsar defeats Pompey (49–48 B.C.). Pompey had the advantage in the struggle, for he controlled the resources of his conquests in the East and still had the fleet with which he had suppressed the pirates. Nevertheless Cæsar managed to get his army across to Epirus (see map, p. 138) and accepted battle with Pompey on the famous field of Pharsalus in Thessaly. Here Pompey was crushingly defeated (48 B.C.), and his army surrendered itself to Cæsar.

237. Cæsar completes the Conquest of the Mediterranean World (48–45 B.C.). Pompey then escaped into Egypt, where he was basely murdered. Cæsar, following Pompey to Egypt, found ruling there the beautiful Cleopatra, the last of the Ptolemies. The charms of this remarkable queen appear to have captivated the great Roman.

We know little of the campaign by which Cæsar next overthrew his opponents in Asia Minor. It was from there that he sent his famous report to the Senate: "I came, I saw, I conquered" (*Veni, vidi, vici*). The only other obstacles to Cæsar's *complete control of the empire of the Roman world* were all disposed of by March, 45 B.C., a little over four years after he had first taken possession of Italy with his army.

238. Cæsar's Reforms and Plans for the Future. Cæsar was a great statesman. He used his power with moderation and humanity. From the first he had taken great pains to show that his methods were not those of the bloody Sulla. It is clear that he intended his own position to be that of a Hellenistic sovereign like Alexander the Great. Nevertheless he was too wise a statesman to abolish at once the outward forms of the Republic. He made his power seem legal by having himself made Dictator for life, and he assumed also the powers of the other leading offices of the state.

Cæsar undertook the task of reshaping the Roman Empire. He reformed the Senate, which had long been an evil influence in public affairs, and began far-reaching reforms in the corrupt administration of the government. He sketched vast plans for rebuilding Rome itself; he laid out new roads to facilitate travel

throughout the great empire. He put an end to centuries of inconvenience which had resulted from the use of the old-fashioned calendar based on the moon-month, and introduced the Egyptian calendar. Our month of July (Latin, *Julius*) is named after him. In short, it is not too much to say that he really established the Roman Empire and was its first emperor in fact if not in name.

239. Murder of Cæsar (44 B.C.). But there were still men in Rome who were not ready to submit to the rule of one man. On

Coin of Brutus

The above cut shows us the two sides of a coin issued by Brutus, one of the leading assassins of Julius Cæsar. On one side the coin bears the head of Brutus, accompanied by his name and the title Imperator, that is, general (abbreviated to IMP). On the other side are two daggers, intended to recall the assassination of Cæsar, and between them appears the cap of liberty, to suggest the liberty which the Romans supposedly gained by his murder. In order that the meaning of all this might be perfectly clear, there appears, below, the inscription EID MAR, which means the Ides of March (the Roman term for the fifteenth of March), the date of Cæsar's murder

the fifteenth of March, 44 B.C., three days before the date arranged for his departure on a great campaign beyond the Euphrates, these men struck down the greatest of the Romans. If some of his murderers, like Brutus and Cassius, fancied themselves patriots overthrowing a tyrant, they little understood how vain were all such efforts to restore the ancient Republic. World dominion and its military power had destroyed forever the Roman Republic and its old democratic government. The murder of Cæsar had the most unhappy effects and again plunged Italy and the Empire into civil war.

III. Triumph of Augustus and End of the Civil Wars

240. How Octavian (Cæsar Augustus) made himself Head of Rome. Julius had adopted his grandnephew Octavian and had made him his sole heir. At the time of Cæsar's assassination he was only eighteen years old and was quietly pursuing his studies in Illyria. His mother sent him word of his uncle's death and urged him to flee eastward as fast as possible. Instead of this he started for Rome and began skillfully to gather up the threads of the tangled situation in his clever fingers. In spite of his youth and inexperience, he managed to find supporters and secure a military command, so that two years after Cæsar's murder he was able to defeat his enemies, including Cæsar's assassins, in the battle of Philippi (42 B.C.). During the following ten years he was able to make his position stronger and stronger, and at the age of twenty-eight he had gained almost complete control over both the eastern and western portions of the Empire.

Portrait of Augustus, now in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts

241. Octavian, Mark Antony, and Cleopatra. Octavian's last struggle was with his former friend and supporter Mark Antony, who, having fought in the east, had become infatuated with the charming Egyptian queen, Cleopatra. Antony was now living in Alexandria and Antioch, where he ruled like an oriental monarch. It was reported to Octavian that Antony and Cleopatra were planning to make themselves rulers of Rome. Accordingly Octavian induced the Senate to declare war on Cleopatra, and thus he was able to advance against Antony. As Cæsar and Pompey,

representing the West and the East, had once faced each other on a battlefield in Greece (§ 236), so now Octavian and Antony, the leaders of the West and the East, met at Actium on the west coast of Greece. The outcome was a sweeping victory for the heir of Cæsar (31 B.C.).

The next year Octavian landed in Egypt. Antony, probably forsaken by Cleopatra, took his own life. The proud queen, unwilling to be displayed at Octavian's triumph at Rome, died by her own hand. She was the last of the Ptolemies (§ 165), the rulers of Egypt for nearly three hundred years. Octavian therefore made Egypt Roman territory (30 B.C.). To the West, which he already controlled, Octavian had now added also the East. Thus he had restored the unity of Roman dominions. The entire Mediterranean world was under the power of a single ruler.

242. Summary. The struggle between the rich and the poor, which resulted in violence under the Gracchus brothers after 133 B.C., was accompanied by the rise of military leaders, who gained great power and wealth in the newly conquered possessions. They strove to control the State in defiance of the laws. Years of civil war between the leaders of the people and the Senate resulted in the overthrow of the Republic (about 30 B.C.). Octavian's success marked the final triumph of one-man power in the entire ancient world, as it had long ago triumphed in the Orient. The century of strife which Octavian's victory ended was now followed by two centuries of peace. These were the first two centuries of the Roman Empire, beginning in 30 B.C.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the aims and fate of the Gracchi. Describe the contest between Marius and Sulla. What was Sulla's policy after the death of Marius?

II. Describe the career of Pompey. How did Julius Cæsar prepare the way for his dictatorship? Trace the struggle between Cæsar and Pompey. How did Cæsar complete the conquest of the Mediterranean world? What were his reforms and plans?

III. How did Cæsar Augustus make himself head of Rome?

CHAPTER XIII

THE ROMAN EMPIRE: TWO CENTURIES OF PEACE FROM AUGUSTUS TO MARCUS AURELIUS

I. The Age of Augustus (30 B.C.–A.D. 14)

243. Origin of the Roman Empire. When Octavian returned to Italy there was a general impression that peace had at last come after a hundred years of revolution, civil war, and devastation. The great majority of Romans now felt that an individual ruler was necessary for the control of the vast Roman dominions. There was, therefore, no further opposition to Octavian, and he devoted the remaining forty-four years of his life to giving the Roman Empire the efficient organization and good government which it had so long lacked.

The Senate conferred upon him the title of *Augustus*, that is, "the august"; but his chief official title was *Princeps*, that is, "the first," meaning the first of the citizens. Another title given the head of the Roman Empire was an old word for commander or general; namely, *Imperator*, from which our word "emperor" is derived. Augustus, as we may now call Octavian, regarded his position as that of an official of the Roman Republic, elected by the Senate and the people.

The Roman Empire, which here emerges, was thus under a double government of the Senate and of the Princeps, whom we commonly call the emperor. The emperor was, however, the real ruler, because as general he had the legions at his command. So the Roman Republic tended to become a military monarchy, as we shall see.

244. The Army and the Frontiers. Augustus seems to have thought that the Roman Empire was quite large enough, and he

did not advocate any further conquests. It was bounded on the south by the Sahara Desert and on the west by the Atlantic. The Euphrates River was established as the frontier on the east, and the Danube and Rhine on the north.

For the defense of these frontiers it was necessary to maintain a large standing army—on the average probably two hundred and twenty-five thousand men. The troops were recruited chiefly from the Roman provinces. Henceforth the legions were posted far out on the boundaries, and the citizens in Italy saw few troops except the emperor's bodyguard.

245. Great Task of organizing the Empire. Augustus faced the task of providing a newer and better government for all the various peoples and nations that made up the Empire. The selection of the governors of the provinces was almost wholly in his hands, and the governors knew that they were responsible to him for the wise and honest performance of their duties. Each governor also knew that if he proved successful he would be permitted to retain his post for years or be promoted to a better one.

The whole Mediterranean world now entered upon a period of peace and prosperity. Formerly the various peoples had been accustomed to fight one another, but now the Roman peace enveloped them all. The threads of our historical narrative have hitherto been numerous as we followed the stories of Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria, Persia, Athens, Macedonia, Rome, and Carthage. With the exception of the regions east of the Euphrates these separate strands now become twisted together into the single thread of history, that of the Roman Empire.

246. The Rebuilding of Rome. Augustus also undertook to rebuild Rome and make it the most magnificent city of the world. He remodeled several private houses into a mansion for his own use. From this royal residence, which was on the Palatine Hill, our English word "palace" is derived.

The palace looked down upon an imposing array of new marble buildings surrounding the ancient Forum. The finest of these was the magnificent business hall (basilica) erected by Julius Cæsar and restored and completed by Augustus. On the north of the

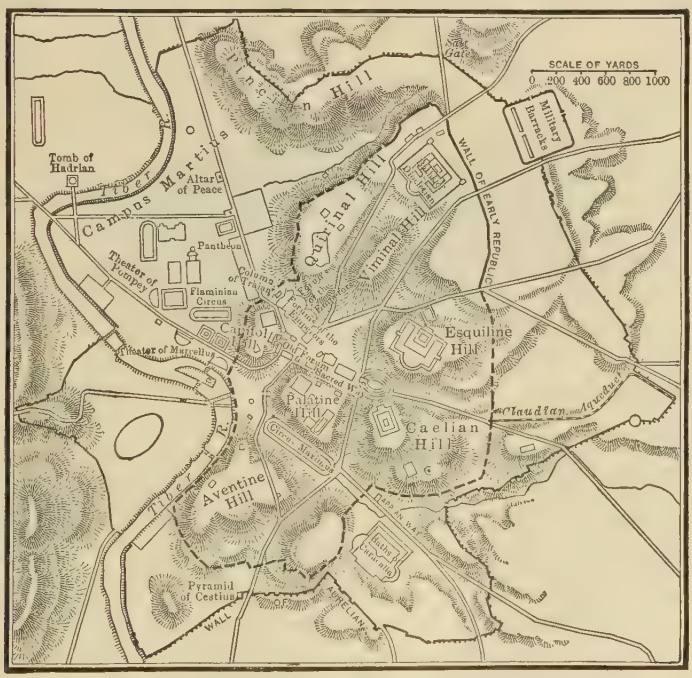
THE ROMAN FORUM AND ITS PUBLIC BUILDINGS IN THE EARLY EMPIRE
(AFTER LUCKENBACH)

We look across the ancient market place (*F*) to the Tiber with its ships. On each side of the market place, where we see the buildings (*E*, *J*, and *D*, *G*, *I*), were once rows of little wooden booths for selling meat, fish, and other merchandise. During the period which followed the beginning of the Carthaginian wars these were gradually displaced by fine buildings, like the basilica hall (*D*), built not long after 200 B.C.

THE BUILDINGS OF DELPHI RESTORED. (AFTER HOMOLLE-TOURNAIRE)

Beginning with the seventh century B.C. this place became a national sanctuary of the Greeks, where all Greece and many foreigners came to hear the oracles of the revered Apollo. His temple, many times rebuilt, was a Doric structure, the largest colonnaded building which we see rising in the middle of the inclosure. A zigzag way passed up from the lower right-hand corner of this inclosure, and on each side of this way were ranged the treasuries containing the votive offerings of the Greeks to the great god—the statues and victorious trophies, many of them of gold and silver, presented by states, kings, and individuals

old Forum Cæsar had constructed another business center, called the Forum of Cæsar; but the growing business of the city led Augustus to build a third forum, known as the Forum of Augustus, which he placed next to that of Cæsar (see *Ancient Times*,

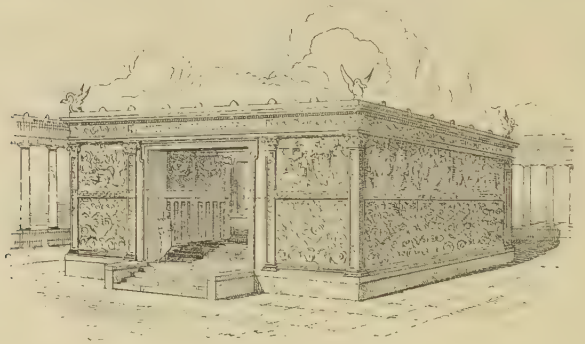


Map of Rome under the Emperors

Fig. 247). The first stone theater in Rome had been built by Pompey. Augustus erected a larger and more magnificent one.

247. Books and Writers of Augustus's Time. It was during the life of Augustus that the writing of Latin reached its highest perfection. The Romans did little in science, and their art was an imitation of Greek models. As writers they were also dominated by the Greeks, and literary men often studied in Athens and spoke Greek among themselves when they returned to Italy. In the age before Augustus, Cicero, a lawyer, statesman, and remarkable

orator, had done much to perfect the Latin tongue in his speeches and orations. Late in life he was forced to retire from active life and spent several years writing out, in Latin, treatises on duty, friendship, old age, and the gods, which have been read with pleasure ever since. While they owed much to Greek works, they



"Altar of Augustan Peace"

The above cut shows a restoration of a magnificent marble inclosure containing the "Altar of Augustan Peace," erected by order of the Senate in honor of Augustus. The inclosure was open to the sky, and its surrounding walls, of which portions still exist, are covered below by a broad band of ornamental plant spirals, very sumptuous in effect. Above it is a series of reliefs, of which the one on the right of the door pictures the legendary hero Æneas bringing an offering to the temple of the Roman household gods (Penates) which he carried from Troy to Latium

are so beautifully and elegantly expressed that they came to be regarded as models of Latin prose and are still used in our schools and colleges where Latin is studied.

Latin poetry appeared a generation later than Cicero, after Augustus had established peace and begun to encourage men of letters to make his reign famous by their works. Horace was particularly proud of having been able to introduce the various Greek rhythms into Latin. He wrote gay and sometimes sad little poems about human joys and loves and ambitions, which are still quoted by those fond of Latin. Virgil, the most beloved of Latin writers through the ages, described country life in his earlier

poems and then wrote his immortal Æneid,—a sort of continuation of the Iliad,—in which he describes the fall of Troy, the coming to Italy of Æneas, whom he represented as the ancestor of the Cæsars. Livy wrote his great history of Rome, from which we get a large part of our information in regard to the development of the Roman State down to his time.

Tues. Oct. 23. 1923.

II. Successors of Augustus: Policy of Trajan and Hadrian

248. Death of Augustus; his Successors. Augustus died A.D. 14. There was no law providing for the line of succession in the Empire. As Augustus had no male heir, he had asked the Senate to associate with him in the government his stepson Tiberius, an able soldier who succeeded him. The chief thing to be noted in his reign is that he no longer allowed the Roman populace to go through the farce of approving what the emperor had already decided upon; so even the appearance of government by the Roman people disappeared forever. We can mention only a very few of the Roman emperors who succeeded Tiberius. Some of them were good and efficient; some of them followed careers of vice and wickedness. Of the latter class Nero (A.D. 54–68) is the worst example. He is accused of having his wife and mother and his old teacher, Seneca, killed and of setting fire to Rome in order to witness the spectacle and have the pleasure of rebuilding the town. There is no evidence that he really committed this crime. He put the blame for it on the Christians, who were now beginning to appear in Rome, and had many of them executed with horrible tortures. So Nero's name has come down to us as one of the blackest in history. A revolt in the army finally caused him to commit suicide.

After Nero's death there was a struggle between rival candidates for the throne, and Vespasian, an able general, finally won in the year 69 of the Christian Era. With him began a century of general peace under good and efficient rulers who brought the Empire to its highest point of prosperity and general content.

249. Protection of the Empire. We have seen that on the north and east the Roman Empire was open to attack. Owing to the pressure of the German barbarians, civilization was constantly in danger. Vespasian and his sons did much to make the northern boundary safe by building walls and fortifications along the

THE EMPEROR TRAJAN SACRIFICING AT HIS NEW BRIDGE ACROSS THE DANUBE

In the background we see the heavy stone piers of the bridge, supporting the wooden upper structure, built with strong railings. In the foreground is the altar, toward which the emperor advances from the right, with a flat dish in his right hand, from which he is pouring a libation. At the left of the altar stands a priest, naked to the waist and leading an ox to be slain for the sacrifice. A group of the emperor's officers approach from the left, bearing army standards. The scene is sculptured with many others on the column of Trajan at Rome, and is one of the best examples of Roman relief sculpture of the second century

frontier. But on the lower Danube they were unable to crush the growing power of the Dacians (see map, p. 160).

250. Trajan (A.D. 98–117) and his Wars. This left the whole threatening situation on the lower Danube to be met by the brilliant soldier Trajan. He captured one stronghold of the Dacians after another, and finally destroyed their capital. Having built a massive bridge across the Danube, Trajan made Dacia a Roman

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25
HIBERNIA
Wall of Hadrian
York
BRITANNIA
Rhine R.
Colonia Agrippina
Elbe R.
Loire R.
GALLIA
Marcomani
Vindobona
NORICUM
RAETIA
Burdigala
Garonne R.
Mediolanum
Milan
Aquileia
PANNONIA
Arelate
Tolosa
Narbo
Ebro R.
Tiber R.
Ravenna
SPAIN
Tarraco
CORSICA
ROME
Fidenæ
Ostia
SARDINIA
Capua
Puteoli
Herculaneum
Baiæ
Naples
Pompeii
Gades
New Carthage
Carthage
SICILY
Syracuse
MAURETANIA
NUMIDIA
AFRICA
THE ROMAN EMPIRE
AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT
(Under Trajan, A. D. 98-117)
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700
Scale of Miles.

20
25
30
35
40
45
50
55
50
45
40
35
30
25
Sarmatians
Tauroscythes
DACIA
Ister or Danube R.
MŒSIA
Herakleia
Chersonesus
COLCHIS
IBERIA
ALBANIA
Artaxata
ARMENIA
MACEDONIA
THRACE
Byzantium
Nicomedia
Halys R.
CAPPADOCIA
PONTUS
PARTHIAN KINGDOM
Tigris R.
Edessa
Nisibis
Nineveh
ASSYRIA
ASIA
CAPPADOCIA
CILICIA
MESOPOTAMIA
Corinth
ACHAIA
PAMPHYLIA
Issus
Antioch
Euphrates R.
SYRIA
Emesa
Palmyra
Seleucia
Babylon
CRETE
CYPRUS
Cæsarea
PALESTINE
Jerusalem
Petra
Cyrene
Alexandria
CYRENAICA
ARABIA
EGYPT
Nile R.

province and sprinkled plentiful Roman colonies on the north side of the great river. The descendants of these colonists in this region still call themselves *Rumanians* and their land *Rumania,* a form of the word "Roman."

Trajan then turned his attention to the eastern frontier, where a large portion of the boundary was formed by the upper Euphrates River. Rome thus held the western half of the Fertile Crescent, but it had never conquered the eastern half, including Assyria and Babylonia, which was held by the powerful kingdom of the Parthians. Trajan, emulating Alexander the Great, attempted to add this region to the Empire, but he failed and died a bitterly disappointed man.

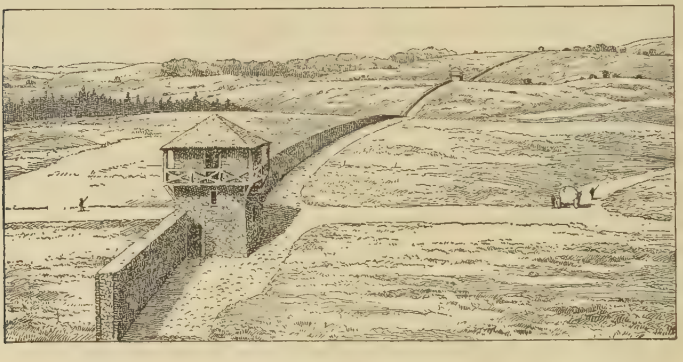
251. Hadrian (A.D. 117–138) completes the Frontier Defenses. Trajan's successor, Hadrian, was also an able soldier. He had, moreover, the judgment of a statesman. He made no effort to continue Trajan's conquests in the East, but, on the contrary, wisely brought the frontier back to the Euphrates. He retained Dacia, however, and strengthened the whole northern frontier, especially the long barrier reaching from the Rhine to the Danube, where the completion of a continuous wall was largely due to him. He built a similar wall along the northern boundary across Britain. The lines of both these walls are still visible. As a result of the wise measures of Hadrian and the impressive victories of Trajan, the frontiers were safe and quiet for a long time.

252. The Army under Trajan and Hadrian. Drawn from all parts of the Empire, the army now consisted of many different nationalities, like the British army in the recent World War. A legion of Spaniards might be stationed on the Euphrates, or a group of youths from the Nile might spend years in sentry duty on the wall that barred out the Germans. The army posts were equipped with fine barracks and living quarters for officers and men. The discipline was never relaxed, for the troops had always to be ready to meet any attack from the barbarian Germans who lived beyond the walls.

253. Improvements in Government. Meantime the Empire had been undergoing important changes within. The emperors

developed a system of *government departments*, headed by experienced ministers, such as we have in modern states. It was the wise and efficient Hadrian who accomplished the most in perfecting this organization of the government business.

Among many changes, one of the most important was the abolition of the system of "farming" taxes,—that is, allowing them to be collected by private individuals for profit,—a system



RESTORATION OF THE ROMAN FORTIFIED WALL ON THE GERMAN FRONTIER

This masonry wall, some three hundred miles long, protected the northern boundary of the Roman Empire between the upper Rhine and the upper Danube, where it was most exposed to German attack. At short intervals there were blockhouses along the wall, and at points of great danger strongholds and barracks for the shelter of garrisons

which had caused both the Greeks and the Romans much trouble. Government collectors now everywhere gathered in the taxes of the great Mediterranean world.

254. Rise of a System of Law for the Whole Empire. Not only did the subjects of this vast State pay their taxes into the same treasury but they were controlled by the same laws. The lawyers of Rome under the emperors we are now discussing were the most gifted legal minds the world had ever seen. They altered the narrow *city*-law of Rome so that it might meet the needs of the whole empire. In spirit these laws were fair, just,

and humane and did much to unify the peoples of the Mediterranean world into a single nation; for they were now regarded by the law not as different nations but as subjects of the same great State, which extended to them all the same protection of justice, law, and order.

III. Civilization of the Roman Empire

255. The Peoples of the Roman Empire. The number of inhabitants of the vast Roman Empire is supposed to have been somewhere between sixty-five and a hundred million. We have no exact statistics. It included the most varied peoples,—Italians, Greeks, Gauls, Iberians (Spaniards), some Britons and Germans, Moors, North Africans, Egyptians, Arabs, Jews, Phœnicians, Syrians, Armenians, and Hittites, to mention only the more important. All these peoples differed from one another in their native manners, customs, and dress, but they could all rejoice in the far-reaching Roman peace and protection. For the most part they lived in cities; like our own day, it was an age of city life.

256. Excellent Roman Roads. Everywhere the magnificent Roman roads, smoothly paved with massive stone like a town street, led straight over the hills and across the rivers by imposing bridges. Some of these bridges still stand and are in use today. The speed of travel and communication was fully as high as that maintained in Europe and America a century ago, before the introduction of the steam railway, and the roads were much better. By sea a Roman merchant could send a letter to his agent in Alexandria in ten days. The huge government grain ships that plied regularly between the Roman harbors and Alexandria were stately vessels carrying several thousand tons.

257. Wide Extent of Commerce. With these improved conditions business flourished as never before. There was a fleet of a hundred and twenty ships plying regularly across the Indian Ocean between the Red Sea and the harbors of India. The wares that they brought were shipped west from the docks of Alexandria, which still remained the greatest commercial city on the

Mediterranean. There was a proverb that you could get anything in Alexandria except snow. A vast system of trade routes by sea and land covered the world of the time, from the frontiers of China and India on the east, to the harbors of the Atlantic and Britain on the west.

258. What a Tourist might see. The Roman citizens of this period often made tours of the Mediterranean much as the modern sight-seer does. As the traveler passed through the towns of the provinces, he found everywhere evidences of the public spirit of the citizens. There were fountains, theaters, music halls, baths, and gymnasiums, erected by wealthy men and given to the community. There were schools for boys and girls with teachers paid by the government.

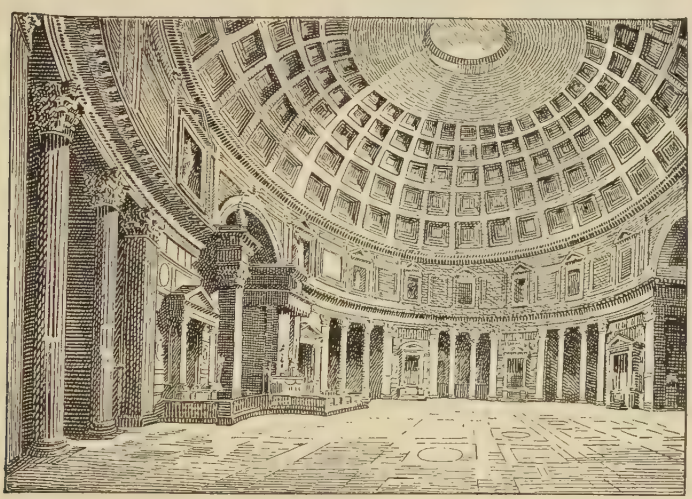
To a traveler wandering in Greece and looking back some six hundred years to the Age of Pericles or the Persian Wars of Athens, Greece seemed to belong to a distant and ancient world, of which he had read in the histories of Thucydides and Herodotus (§§ 122, 147). The Roman visitor who strolled through Athens or Delphi noticed many an empty pedestal, and he recalled how the villas of his friends at home were now adorned with the statues which had once occupied them.

As the traveler passed eastward through the flourishing cities of Asia Minor and Syria, he might feel justifiable pride in what Roman rule was accomplishing. In the western half of the Fertile Crescent, especially just east of the Jordan, where there had formerly been only a nomad wilderness, there were now prosperous towns, with long aqueducts, baths, theaters, of which the ruins fill even us of today with astonishment. Beyond the desert behind these towns lay the former empires of Babylonia, Assyria, and Persia, with their great cities already reduced to mounds of rubbish.

On visiting Alexandria our traveler might have found himself joining a group of other tourists, who, after viewing the great commercial town founded by Alexander the Great, could make their way up the Nile into the midst of a much earlier world—the earliest civilization of which they knew. At Memphis and

Thebes they would see buildings constructed thousands of years before Rome was founded. On these mountains we can see today the names and comments these tourists scribbled on the stone.

259. Civilization in the West. In the western Mediterranean civilization was a new thing. In that age western Europe had for



INTERIOR VIEW OF THE DOME OF THE PANTHEON BUILT AT ROME BY AGRIPPA AND HADRIAN

The first building on this spot was erected by Agrippa, Augustus's great minister. But it was completely rebuilt, as we see it here, by Hadrian. The circular hole in the ceiling is thirty feet across; it is one hundred and forty-two feet above the pavement, and the diameter of the huge dome is also one hundred and forty-two feet. This is the only ancient building in Rome which is still standing with walls and roof in a perfectly preserved state. It is thus a remarkable example of Roman skill in the use of concrete (§ 260). At the same time it is one of the most beautiful and impressive domed interiors ever designed

the first time been building cities, under the guidance of Roman architects, and their buildings looked like those at Rome. We can still visit and study massive bridges, spacious theaters, imposing public monuments, sumptuous villas, and luxurious public baths —a line of Roman ruins stretching from Britain through southern

France and Germany to the Balkan Peninsula. Similarly, in North Africa west of Carthage the ruins of whole cities with magnificent public buildings still survive to show us how Roman civilization developed there.

These Roman buildings, still encircling the Mediterranean, reveal to us the fact that as a result of ages of human progress

THE VAST AMPHITHEATER AT ROME NOW CALLED THE COLOSSEUM (RESTORED AFTER LUCKENBACH)

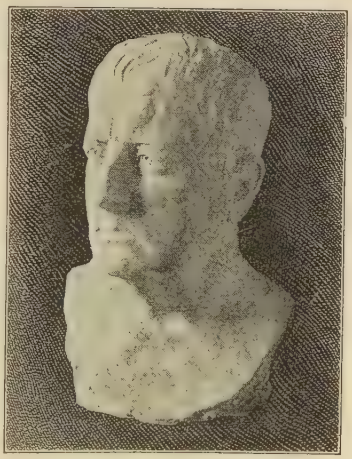
This enormous building, one of the greatest in the world, was an oval arena surrounded by rising tiers of seats, accommodating nearly fifty thousand people. We see here only the outside wall, as restored. It was built by the emperors Vespasian and Titus, and was completed in 80 A.D. At the left is the colossal bronze statue of Nero, about one hundred feet high, which originally stood in this vicinity, near the entrance of his famous "Golden House," just east of the Forum

which we have studied, the whole Mediterranean world, West as well as East, had now gained a high civilization.

260. New Public Buildings of Rome. As for Rome itself, a visitor at the close of the reign of Hadrian found it the most magnificent monumental city in the world of that day. It had by that time quite surpassed Alexandria in size and in the number and splendor of its public buildings. It was especially in and alongside the old Forum that the grandest structures of the

Empire had grown up. There Vespasian had erected a vast amphitheater for gladiatorial combats, now known as the Colosseum. Along the north side of the old Forum the emperors built three new forums which surpassed in magnificence anything which the Mediterranean world had ever seen before.

These buildings of Trajan and Hadrian represent the highest level of splendor and beauty reached by Roman architects. In the Hellenistic Age architects had begun to employ increasing quantities of concrete. The domed roof of Hadrian's Pantheon is an enormous solid mass of concrete over a hundred and forty feet across. The Romans, therefore, eighteen hundred years ago were employing concrete on a scale which we have only recently learned to imitate, and after all this lapse of time the roof of the Pantheon seems to be as safe and stanch as it was when Hadrian's architects first knocked away the posts which supported the wooden form for the great cast.



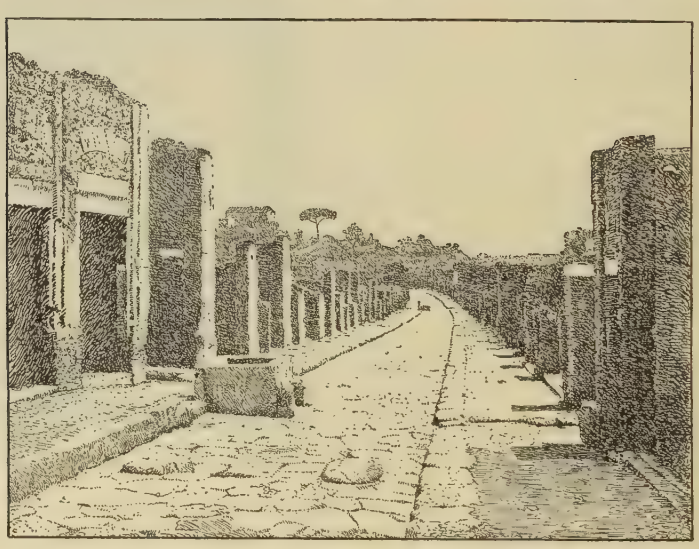
PORTRAIT OF AN UNKNOWN ROMAN

This terra-cotta head is one of the finest portraits ever made. It represents one of the masterful Roman lords of the world, and shows clearly in the features those qualities of power and leadership which so long maintained the supremacy of the Roman Empire

261. Roman Sculpture and Painting. The reliefs which adorn all these monuments show Roman art at its best. Those on Trajan's column form a sort of picture book of his campaigns. The Roman statuary is mainly copies of the masterpieces of the great Greek sculptors. The portrait busts of leading Romans are, however, among the finest things of the kind ever done and give us a lively notion of how the men of the time looked. As for painting, the decorations on the walls of houses, copied from

Hellenistic Greek works, are the most striking examples of the art that are to be found in the Roman period.

262. Pompeii. Fortunately one of the provincial cities has been preserved to us with much that we might have seen there if we could have visited it nearly two thousand years ago. In the



A Street in Ancient Pompeii as it appears Today

The pavement and sidewalk are in perfect condition, as when they were first covered by the falling ashes. At the left is a public fountain, and in the foreground is a street crossing. Of the buildings on this street only half a story still stands, except at the left, where we see the entrances of two shops, with the tops of the doors in position and the walls preserved to the level of the second floor above

year 79 of the Christian Era an eruption of Mt. Vesuvius suddenly overwhelmed the little city of Pompeii and covered it with ashes. Recent excavations show us the very streets and houses, the forum and the public buildings, the shops and the markets, and a host of other things illustrating the life of the people of this town as it was in the days when they were suddenly buried beneath the ashes of the volcano.

263. Luxury of the Rich Romans. The richer Romans lived in great luxury. The Roman ladies were adorned with diamonds, pearls, and rubies from India and clothed in silks from China. On their tables were new rare fruits,—peaches, called "Persian apples," and apricots. We also first hear of sugar in this period, although it did not for a long time generally replace honey for sweetening food. Satirists, especially Juvenal (who lived in Trajan's time), wrote very bitterly of the extravagance and insolence of the rich of his day.

264. Decline of Literature. In spite of the educated public and the excellent libraries which were now to be found in Rome, the writers were inferior to those of the age of Augustus. Plutarch wrote in Greek his remarkable *Lives of Famous Men*, which has charmed and inspired readers ever since. Tacitus prepared histories of recent events, which are celebrated for compact style and penetrating estimates of the leading men of the period. But this is the last history of importance that we have, and little is known of the following period.

Science made no advance. The chief scientific writer was Pliny the Elder, who wrote a great encyclopedia called *Natural History*. In it he brought together all sorts of information he had collected from Greek writers, and he mixes much solid information with stories of mythical animals and men and of the magical properties of gems and plants. Yet Pliny's book was regarded during the Middle Ages as a great authority. Men grew more and more indifferent to science; they made no new discoveries and forgot many of the old ones.

265. The Ptolemaic System. The last scientist of distinction that arose in Alexandria was Claudius Ptolemæus, commonly called Ptolemy, who seems to have flourished in Hadrian's time or a little later. He wrote on geography and astronomy and summed up the previous discoveries of the Greeks so well that his books were regarded as the last word on the subjects until a few hundred years ago. He held that the sun revolved around the earth, and his explanation of the movements of the planets is known as the Ptolemaic system. It was not until the sixteenth century that,

with the appearance of Copernicus (§ 593), men began to suspect that Ptolemy was wholly mistaken about the universe.

266. Oriental Religions in Europe. Many thoughtful Romans read the Greek philosophy of the Stoics and Epicureans (§ 172) in the charming treatises of Cicero (§ 247). But such teaching was only for the highly educated and the intellectual class.

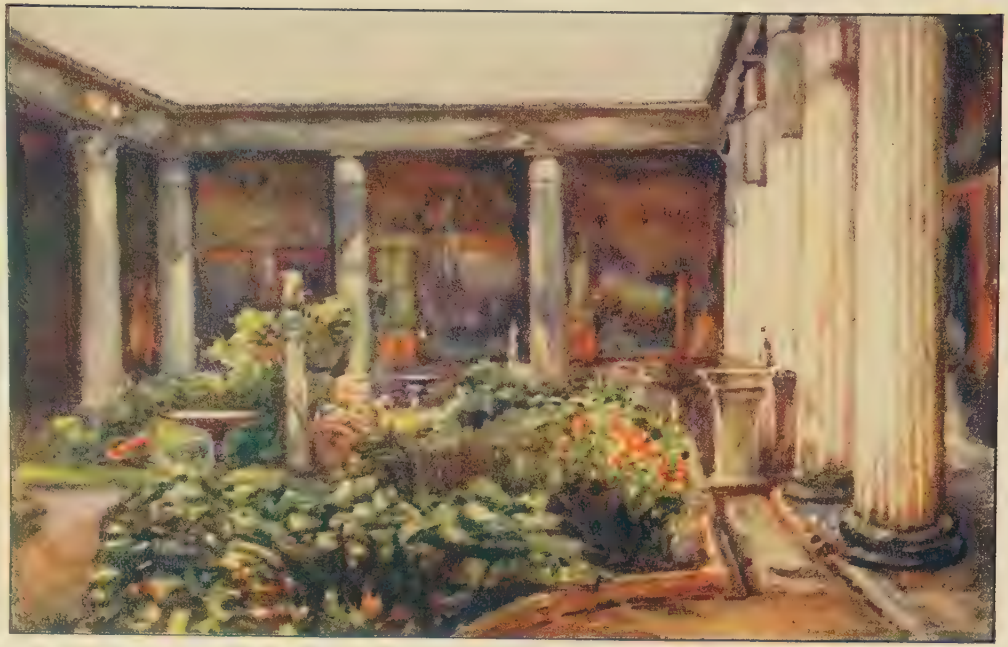
Multitudes, including even the educated, yielded to the fascination of the mysterious religions coming in from the East. Many took refuge in the faith of the Egyptian Isis, and temples of Isis were to be found in all the larger cities. Today tiny statuettes and other symbols of the Egyptian goddess are found even along the Seine, the Rhine, and the Danube.

In the army the Persian Mithras, the sun-god of light (§ 53), was a great favorite, and many a Roman legion had its underground chapel where its members celebrated his triumph over darkness and evil. The old Roman religion, like the early Greek religious beliefs (§§ 87, 88), had little to do with right conduct and held out no hopes of happiness in the next world, as did these new oriental faiths. So it is no wonder that many people were attracted by these Eastern forms of worship.

The Jews also, since their temple in Jerusalem had been destroyed by the Romans, were to be found in increasing numbers in the cities. The Roman world was becoming accustomed to their synagogues; but the Jews refused to acknowledge any god besides their own, and this brought them disfavor and trouble with the government.

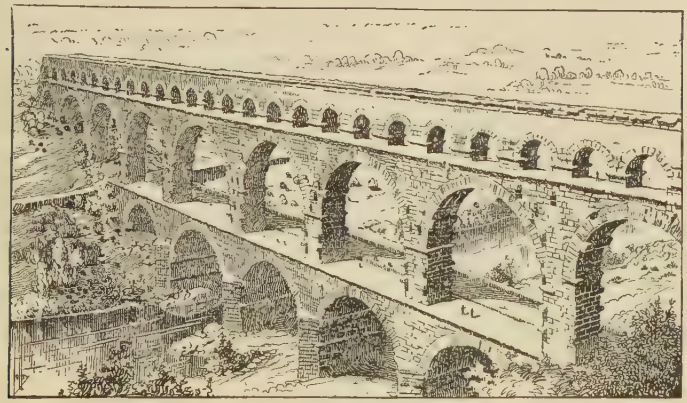
267. Rise of Christianity. Among all these faiths of the Orient the common people were more and more inclining toward the Christian missionaries who told how their Master, Jesus, a Hebrew, was born in Palestine, the land of the Jews, in the days of Augustus. Everywhere they spread his vision of human brotherhood and of divine fatherhood. This faith he had preached for a few years, till he incurred the hatred of his countrymen, and in the reign of Tiberius they had put him to death.

A Jewish tentmaker, Paul of Tarsus, became the leading Christian missionary; he preached the new gospel in Asia Minor,



PERISTYLE OF THE HOUSE OF THE VETTII IN POMPEII, RESTORED

Athens, and finally in Rome itself, and Christian churches began to spring up. Some of Paul's letters to the churches he founded were widely circulated. There were also four accounts in Greek of the life and teachings of Jesus that came to be regarded as authoritative. These were the four *Gospels*, which, with Paul's letters and some other early Christian writings, were brought



ROMAN BRIDGE AND AQUEDUCT AT NÎMES, FRANCE

This structure was built by the Romans about A.D. 20 to supply the Roman colony of Nemausus (now called Nîmes) in southern France with water from two excellent springs twenty-five miles distant. It is nearly nine hundred feet long and one hundred and sixty feet high, and carried the water over the valley of the river Gard. The channel for the water is at the very top, and one can still walk through it. The miles of aqueduct on either side of this bridge and leading to it have almost disappeared

together to form the New Testament. As time passed, increasing numbers learned of the teachings of Jesus and found joy in the hopes they awakened.

268. Roman Persecution of the Early Christians. These early Christians, like the Jews, not only refused to sacrifice to the emperor as a god, as all good Roman citizens were expected to do, but openly prophesied the downfall of the Roman State. While the Roman government was usually very tolerant in matters of religion, the Christians were therefore frequently called upon to

endure cruel persecution. Their religion seemed to interfere with good citizenship, since it forbade them to show the usual respect for the emperor and the government. Nevertheless their numbers steadily grew.

269. Summary of the Two Centuries of Peace. The remarkable forty-four years of the peaceful reign of Augustus had ushered in a century of general peace, ending (A.D. 68) with the death of the infamous Nero. The second century of peace, which began after a brief period of disorder, was covered by the reigns of a group of very able emperors, especially Trajan and Hadrian. These rulers expanded the once local government and laws of the former city-state of Rome until they fitted the needs of a vast state including the whole Mediterranean world. At this time Christianity was spreading very rapidly. Internal decay was going on, however, and under Marcus Aurelius, about A.D. 167, the two centuries of peace ended. We now pass on to a fearful century of revolution, civil war, and anarchy, from which a very different Roman world emerged.

To here.

QUESTIONS

I. What was the meaning of the various titles of Augustus? What is meant by the substitution of the Roman Empire for the Republic? What were the bounds of the Empire in the time of Augustus? Mention the chief writers of the time of Augustus.

II. Mention some of the successors of Augustus. What do you know of Nero? What means were taken for protecting the Empire from invasion? What improvements were made in the Roman government?

III. Mention some of the chief peoples included in the Roman Empire. How was it possible to get about the Empire? Describe some of the things that a tourist might have seen in his travels. Describe the chief public buildings at Rome. Tell something of the science of the Romans. Mention the chief oriental religions which prevailed in the Roman Empire. Describe the rise of Christianity.

CHAPTER XIV

A CENTURY OF DISORDER AND THE DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE

I. Decline of the Roman Empire

270. Signs of Decay. We have now studied the Roman Empire in its most flourishing period during the two centuries of relative peace that began with the reign of Augustus. We must now see how it declined in strength and was finally overrun by the Northern barbarians. We know little of the period, as our sources of information are scanty and unreliable. The great historian Mommsen wrote four volumes on the rise of Rome to the time of Augustus and then was so discouraged when he considered the poor historical sources for the remainder of Rome's story that he confined the rest of his history to a single volume on the Roman provinces. Some things, however, are pretty clear.

271. The Villas and the *Coloni*. The decline in farming, so noticeable earlier, had gone on, and the land continued to pass over into the hands of the rich, whose vast estates were called *villas*. The growth of the villa had destroyed the small independent farmers not only in Italy but in Africa, Gaul, Britain, Spain, and other leading provinces. Moreover, the soil had gradually lost its fertility and become exhausted owing to careless cultivation.

Unable to compete with the great villas, and finding the burden of taxes unbearable, most of the small farmers gave up the struggle. A discouraged farmer would often become the *colonus* of some wealthy villa owner. By this arrangement the farmer and his descendants were assured possession of the land that they worked, but were bound by law to it and passed with it from owner to owner when it changed hands. While not actually slaves, they

were not free to leave or go where they pleased. The great villas once worked by slaves were now cultivated chiefly by these *coloni* (plural of *colonus*), the forerunners of the medieval serfs (§§ 405, 406), while the older type of slavery gradually disappeared.

Hosts of the country people, unwilling to become *coloni*, forsook their fields and turned to the city for relief. Great stretches of unworked and weed-grown fields were no uncommon sight. As the amount of land under cultivation decreased, the ancient world was no longer raising enough food to sustain itself properly. The scarcity was felt most severely in the great centers of population like Rome, where prices had rapidly gone up. Our own generation is not the first to complain of the "high cost of living." The destruction of the small farmers was perhaps the chief cause among a whole group of causes which brought about the decline and fall of this great Empire.

272. Decline of Business. At the same time the business in the cities was also falling off. The country communities no longer possessed a numerous purchasing population. Hence the city manufacturers could not dispose of their products in the country. Their business rapidly declined, and they discharged their workmen, who began to increase the masses of the unemployed.

The cities became filled with shiftless people scrambling for a place in the waiting lines of the poor to whom the government distributed free grain, wine, and meat. In order to pay for this the taxes had constantly to be raised, and the methods of collecting them became harsher and harsher. Marriages decreased, and the population of the Empire shrank.

273. Lack of a Law of Succession: Barrack Emperors. The discipline in the Roman armies relaxed. There was no law determining the succession of the emperors, and the various divisions of the army learned that they could set up emperors to suit themselves. Rude and barbarous soldiers, few of whom were citizens, thus became the chief controlling power. There were often several of these barrack candidates for the throne fighting among themselves. At last (A.D. 212) citizenship was granted to all free men within the Empire, and the various provinces felt

that they had as much right as Italy to determine who should be ruler. All this caused infinite confusion and disorder.

274. Marcus Aurelius (A.D. 161–180). There was also the growing danger of foreign invaders who threatened the Empire. The

RESTORATION OF ROMAN TRIUMPHAL ARCH AT ORANGE, FRANCE

The Romans built many such handsome arches to commemorate important victories. There were a number at Rome, naturally; of those built in the chief cities of the Empire several still remain. The one pictured above was built at the Roman colony of Arausio (now called Orange), on the river Rhone, to celebrate a victory over the Gauls, A.D. 21. Modern cities have erected similar arches; for example, Paris, Berlin, London, and New York

noble emperor Marcus Aurelius had to face a serious situation during his reign. He had to repel the troublesome Parthians, who had long infested the eastern boundary. Then barbarian hordes from the German North broke through the frontier defenses and for

the first time in two centuries poured down into Italy. He was unable to expel them entirely from the Empire and finally permitted some of them to settle within its limits on condition that they should help defend it from their fellow Germans.

Marcus Aurelius was a Stoic and found time during his campaigns to write a little book in Greek called his *Meditations*, which we may still read with great pleasure and profit.

II. A Century of Revolution

275. Beginning of a Century of Revolution (A.D. 180). The forces of decline were swiftly bringing on a century of revolution which was to shipwreck the civilization of the early world. This fatal period began with the death of Marcus Aurelius (A.D. 180). The assassination of his unworthy son Commodus, who reminds us of Nero, was the opportunity for a struggle among a group of military usurpers. From this struggle a rough but successful soldier named Septimius Severus emerged triumphant. He systematically filled the highest posts in the government with military leaders of low origin. Thus, both in the army and in the government, the ignorant and often foreign masses were gaining control.

When the line of Severus ended (A.D. 235), the storm broke. The barbaric troops in one province after another set up their puppet emperors to fight among themselves for the throne of the Mediterranean world. The proclamation of a new emperor would be followed again and again by news of his assassination. From the leaders of the barbaric soldier class, after the death of Commodus, the Roman Empire had eighty rulers in ninety years. Most of these so-called emperors were not unlike the revolutionary bandits who have proclaimed themselves presidents of Mexico.

276. Fifty Years of Anarchy; Collapse of Higher Civilization. For fifty years there was no public order, as the plundering troops tossed the scepter of Rome from one soldier emperor to another. Life and property were nowhere safe; robbery and murder were everywhere. The disorder and fighting between rival emperors hastened the ruin of all business, till national bankruptcy

ensued. In this tempest of anarchy during the third century of our era the civilization of the ancient world fell into final ruin. The leadership of intelligence and of scientific knowledge won by the Greeks in the *third century* B.C. yielded to the reign of ignorance and superstition in these disasters of the *third century of the Christian Era.*

Such turmoil sadly weakened the Roman army. The Northern barbarians were quick to perceive the helplessness of the Empire. They crossed the frontiers almost at will and penetrated far into Greece and Italy; in the West they overran Gaul and Spain, and some of them even crossed to Africa.

Moreover, on Rome's eastern boundary the Parthians were overthrown (A.D. 226) by a new and enlightened Persian dynasty, the Sassanids, who took possession of the Fertile Crescent and made Persia a dangerous rival of Rome. Their capital was Ctesiphon on the Tigris.

III. The Roman Empire becomes an Oriental Despotism

277. Reign of Diocletian (A.D. 284–305); Oriental Pomp. A little more than a century after the death of Marcus Aurelius, the emperor Diocletian managed to restore what promised to be a lasting peace (A.D. 284). The Roman world under Diocletian was a totally different one from that which Augustus and the Roman Senate had ruled three centuries before. Diocletian deprived the shadowy Senate of all power except that of governing the city of Rome. Reduced to a mere City Council, it then disappeared from the stage of history. With the unlimited power of an oriental despot the emperor now assumed also its outward symbols,—the diadem, the gorgeous robe embroidered with pearls and precious stones, the throne and footstool, before which all who came into his presence must bow down to the dust. This pomp offered a great contrast to the earlier simplicity of Roman rulers.

Long regarded as a divinity, the emperor had now become an oriental sun-god, and he was officially called the "Invincible Sun."

His birthday was on the twenty-fifth of December. All were obliged as good citizens to join in the official sacrifices to the head of the State as a god. With the incoming of this oriental attitude toward the emperor, the long struggle for democracy, which we have followed through so many centuries of the history of early man, ended for a time in the triumph of absolute monarchy in the form of an oriental despotism.

278. Crushing Weight of Taxation. The wars that Diocletian had to wage with the new Persia under the Sassanids kept him busy in the East, and he resided most of his time not in Rome but in Nicomedia in Asia Minor. Following some earlier examples, Diocletian appointed another emperor to rule jointly with him and give especial attention to the West. It was not his intention to divide the Empire, but there was a tendency from this time on for the eastern and western portions of the Roman Empire to drift apart.

There were over a hundred provinces, and the financial burden necessary to support all the innumerable officials high and low, to keep up the luxurious court of the emperor with its multitude of courtiers, and to satisfy the clamors of the army demanded a constant increase of taxes. It was now customary to oblige a group of wealthy men in each city to become personally responsible for the payment of the entire taxes of their district. If there was a deficit they had to make it up. As one goes over the laws of the time it seems as if a great part of them had to do directly or indirectly with wringing more and more money out of the taxpayers.

279. Disappearance of Liberty and Free Citizenship. The penalty for wealth seemed to be ruin, and there was little encouragement to keep on in business. As Rome had formerly lost her prosperous farming class, so now she seemed to be losing her enterprising and successful business men. Diocletian met this by forbidding men to give up their business or trade, and laws were passed requiring sons to follow the profession or trade of their fathers. Even wages and the prices of goods were as far as possible fixed by the State.

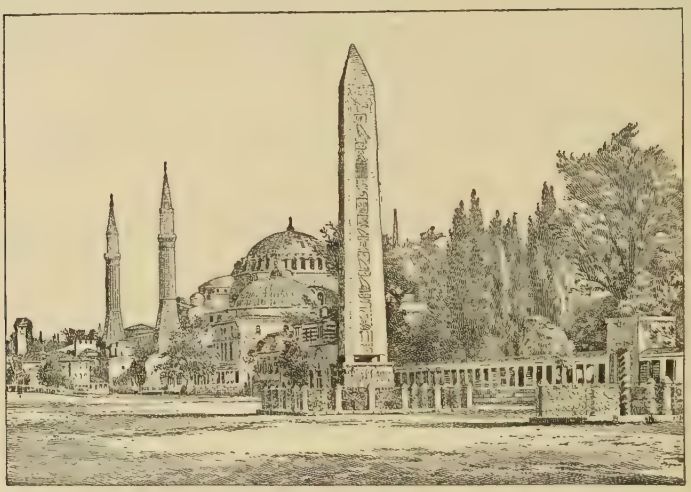
So the once free Roman citizen had almost no independent life of his own. He was watched by government officials and spies who saw to it that the grain dealers, butchers, and bakers supplied the public and never deserted their occupation. In a word, the Roman government attempted to regulate almost every interest of life, and wherever the citizen turned he felt the irksome interference and oppression of the State.

IV. The Triumph of Christianity and Division of the Empire

280. Constantine (A.D. 324–337). Constantine was the first important Christian emperor, and all his successors were Christians in name (except one, Julian, called by Christians "the Apostate"). A series of struggles had followed Diocletian's death, and from these Constantine the Great emerged victoriously as emperor. The Balkan Peninsula had now become even more important than Italy. It had flourishing towns and furnished many of the troops, and more than one emperor, including Diocletian, came from that region. Constantine determined to establish a new Rome on its eastern borders and selected for his site the old Greek town of Byzantium on the Bosporus. Constantinople, named after its founder, stood just between Europe and Asia and was well situated to command them both. The emperor stripped many an ancient town of its works of art to adorn his new capital, and before his death it had become a magnificent city, worthy to be the successor of Rome as the seat of the Empire.

281. Division of the Empire. The founding of a second capital in the East tended to bring about a separation of the eastern and western portions of the Empire. When after Constantine's time there were two emperors, as there often were, one was likely to make his quarters in Italy, the other at Constantinople. But the Empire was always regarded as one, and no decree was ever issued dividing it into two parts. The ancient *res publica*, or Roman commonwealth, was never given up in theory.

282. Christianity placed on a Legal Basis. The Roman government had often persecuted the Christians, and it was against the law to hold Christian services. Finally, in the time of Diocletian, his associate Galerius had issued a decree which permitted



Ancient Monuments in Constantinople

The obelisk in the foreground (nearly one hundred feet high) was first set up in Thebes, Egypt, by the conqueror Thutmose III (§ 30); it was erected here by the Roman emperor Theodosius. The small spiral column at the right is the base of a bronze tripod set up by the Greeks at Delphi in commemoration of their victory over the Persians at Platæa (§ 111). The names of thirty-one Greek cities which took part in the battle are still to be read, engraved on this base. These monuments of ancient oriental and Greek supremacy stand in what was the Roman horse-race course when the earlier Greek city of Byzantium became the Eastern capital of Rome. Finally, the great mosque behind the obelisk, with its slender minarets, represents the triumph of Islam under the Turks, who took the city A.D. 1453

the Christians openly to confess their faith and establish their places of worship. The followers of Christ were put on the same footing as the worshipers of the old gods. There were a great many Christians now, and in spite of the persecutions their churches had become powerful organizations. Constantine and

his Christian successors favored the Christians and began to abolish all other religions. Before long the Christians began to persecute those who refused to accept their doctrines.

The Christian Church became more and more powerful and in time rivaled the State in its influence. The officers of the Church came to be looked upon as occupying a distinguished position and were called *clergy*, while the members of the Church were called the *laity*. Those in charge of the smaller country congregations were called *presbyters*, a Greek word (meaning "elder") from which our word "priest" is derived. Over all the churches in each city a leading priest was appointed as *bishop*. In the larger cities *archbishops*, or head bishops, were appointed. They had a certain measure of authority over the bishops in the surrounding cities of the province. Thus Christianity, once the faith of the weak and the despised, became a powerful organization, and the Church began to play a great part in public affairs.

283. Summary of Ancient History. The stone fist-hatchets lie deep in the river gravels of France; the furniture of the pile-villages is submerged in the Swiss lakes; the majestic pyramids and temples announcing the dawn of civilization rise along the Nile; the silent and deserted city-mounds by the Tigris and Euphrates shelter their myriads of clay tablets; the palaces of Crete look out toward the sea they once ruled; the noble temples and sculptures of Greece still bear witness to the world of beauty and freedom first revealed by the Greeks; the splendid Roman roads and aqueducts assert the supremacy and organized control of Rome; and the early Christian churches proclaim the new ideal of human brotherhood.

We shall now see in the succeeding chapters how the ancient civilization transmitted from the Orient through Greece to Rome was never wholly lost, in spite of the dark times of disorder through which Europe passed, and how it is this ancient civilization on which we are still building today.

QUESTIONS

I. What were the chief signs of decline in the Roman Empire? What was the position of the farming population? What caused the decline in business? Why did disorders occur in the election of emperors? What is chiefly remarkable about Marcus Aurelius?

II. Compare the third century B.C. with the third century of the Christian Era.

III. Sketch the policy of Diocletian. Why were the taxes so heavy in the later Roman Empire? Why did liberty and free citizenship tend to disappear?

IV. What were the chief measures of Constantine? How was Christianity legalized? Describe the Church at that time. Give a summary of ancient history.

BOOK IV. THE MIDDLE AGES

CHAPTER XV

THE PERIOD OF INVASIONS AND THE WORK OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH

I. Invasion of the Empire by Barbarians

284. The Menace of the Barbarians. We must now describe the way in which the western portions of the Roman Empire were invaded by barbarous peoples from the North, who broke up the old Roman government and established in its stead kingdoms under their own rulers. These Germans, or "barbarians" as the Romans called them, belonged to the same great group of peoples to which the Persians, Greeks, and Romans belonged—the Indo-European race (§§ 50, 51). They had not advanced much in civilization since the Late Stone Age and were a constant menace to the highly civilized countries on the Mediterranean to the south of them. It will be recalled that the barbarians had raided the Empire from time to time. In the reign of Diocletian they were beginning to form permanent settlements within its borders (§ 276).

285. The German Peoples. The Germans were a fair-haired, blue-eyed race of men of towering stature and terrible strength, as it seemed to the Romans. Hardened to wind and weather in their raw Northern climate, their native fearlessness and love of war and plunder often led them to wander about, followed by their wives and families in heavy wagons. Each village group was protected by its body of about a hundred warriors, the heads of the village families. In spite of lack of training, these fighting groups of a hundred men, bound by ties of blood and daily

association, formed battle units as terrible as any ever seen in the ancient world, and the Romans had good reason to dread them.

286. Whole German Peoples settle in the Empire. The carefully disciplined Roman legions, which had gained for Rome the leadership of the world, were now no more. Indeed, the lack of men for the army had long since led the emperors to hire the Germans as soldiers. A more serious step was the admission of *entire* German peoples to live in the Empire, with all their old customs. The men were then received into the Roman army, but they remained under their own German leaders and fought in their old village units.

287. The Huns force the Goths into the Empire. About the year 375 the Huns, a Mongolian folk from central Asia, swept down upon the Goths, who were a German tribe settled upon the Danube, and forced a part of them to seek shelter across the river, within the limits of the Empire. Here they soon fell out with the Roman officials, and a great battle was fought at Adrianople in 378, in which the Goths defeated and slew the Roman emperor Valens. The battle of Adrianople may be said to mark the beginning of the conquest of the Empire by the Germans. For some years after the battle of Adrianople, however, the various bands of West Goths—or *Visigoths*, as they are often called—were induced to accept the terms of peace offered by the emperor's officials, and some of the Goths agreed to serve as soldiers in the Roman armies.

288. Alaric takes Rome (410). Among the Germans who succeeded in getting an important position in the Roman army was Alaric, but he appears to have become dissatisfied with the treatment he received from the emperor. He therefore collected an army, of which his countrymen the West Goths formed a considerable part, set out for Italy, and finally decided to march on Rome itself. The Eternal City fell into his hands in 410 and was plundered by his followers. Although Alaric did not destroy the city, or even seriously damage it, the fact that Rome had fallen into the hands of an invading army was a notable disaster.

289. West Goths settle in Southern Gaul and Spain; the Vandals. After the death of Alaric the West Goths wandered into Gaul and then into Spain, where they came upon the Vandals, another German tribe, whom they seem to have finally driven across the Strait of Gibraltar into northern Africa. Here the Vandals established a kingdom and conquered the neighboring islands in the Mediterranean.

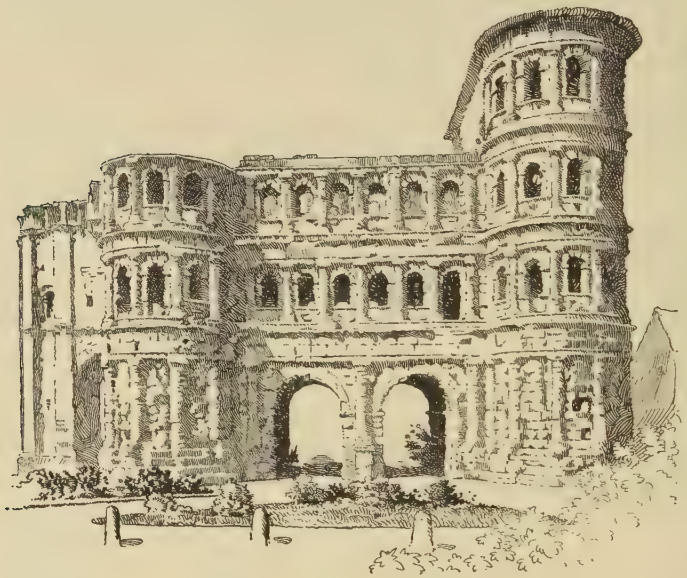
Having rid themselves of the Vandals, the West Goths took possession of a great part of the Spanish peninsula, and this they added to their conquests across the Pyrenees in Gaul, so that their kingdom extended from the river Loire to the Strait of Gibraltar.

It is unnecessary to follow the confused history of the movements of the innumerable bands of restless barbarians who wandered about Europe during the fifth century. Scarcely any part of western Europe was left unmolested; even Britain was conquered by German tribes, the Angles and Saxons.

290. Attila and the Huns. To add to the universal confusion, the Huns (the Mongolian people who had first pushed the West Goths into the Empire) now began to fill Europe with terror. Under their chief, Attila, this savage people invaded Gaul, but were repulsed in the battle of Châlons, in 451. Attila then turned to Italy; but the danger there was averted by an embassy headed by Pope Leo the Great, who induced Attila to give up his plan of marching upon Rome. Within a year he died, and his warriors were scattered.

291. The Fall of the Empire in the West (476). The year 476 has commonly been taken as the date of the "fall" of the Western Empire and of the beginning of the Middle Ages. What happened in that year was this. Most of the Roman emperors in the West had proved weak and indolent rulers; so the barbarians wandered hither and thither pretty much at their pleasure, and the German troops in the service of the Empire became accustomed to set up and depose emperors to suit their own special interest. Finally, in 476, Odoacer, the most powerful among the rival German generals in Italy, declared himself *king* and banished the last of the emperors of the West.

292. Theodoric establishes the Kingdom of the East Goths in Italy. It was not, however, given to Odoacer to establish an enduring German kingdom on Italian soil, for he was conquered

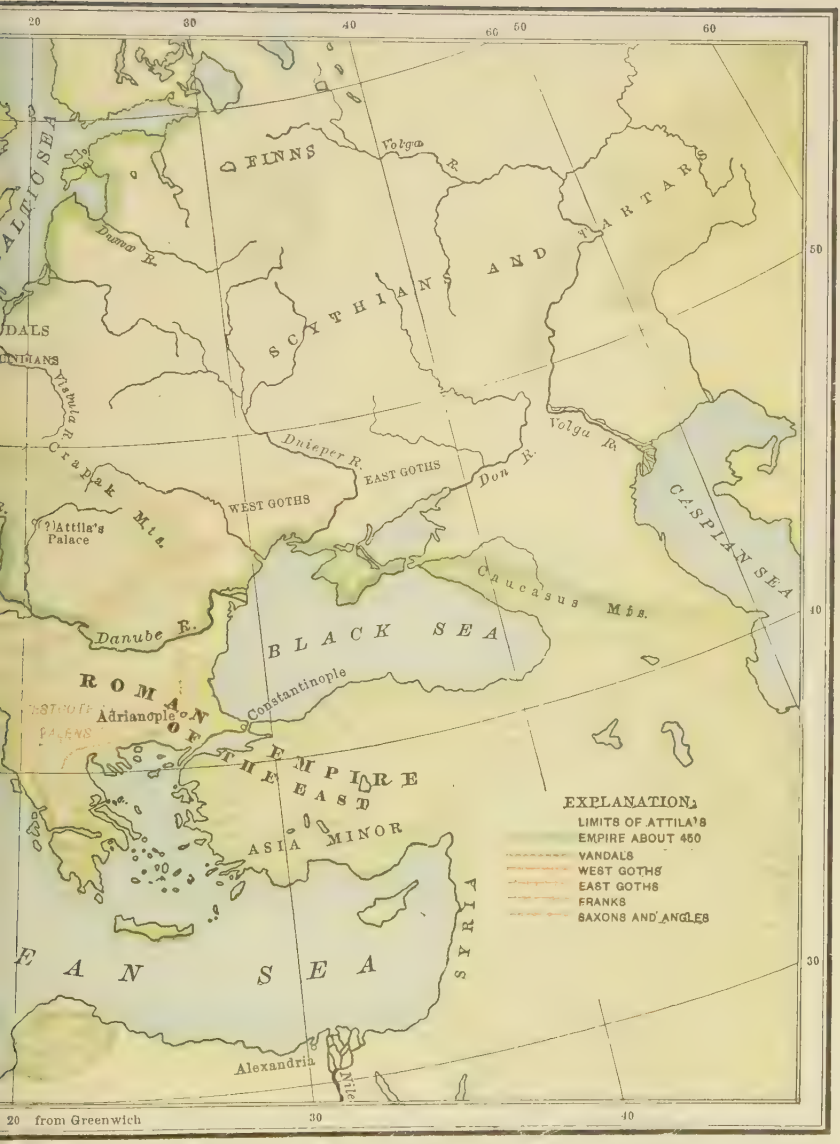


ROMAN GATE AT TREVES

Colonia Augusta Trevirorum (now called Trier or Treves) was one of the chief Roman colonies on the German boundaries of the Empire. The Roman emperors often resided there, and the remains of their palace are still to be seen. The great gate here represented was designed to protect the entrance of the town, which was surrounded with a wall, for the Romans were in constant danger of attack from the neighboring German tribes. One can also see at Treves the remains of a vast amphitheater in which on two occasions Constantine had several thousand German prisoners cast to be killed by wild animals for the amusement of the spectators

by the great Theodoric, the king of the East Goths (or *Ostrogoths*). Theodoric had spent ten years of his early youth in Constantinople and had thus become familiar with Roman life and was on friendly terms with the emperor of the East. He greatly admired the Roman laws and institutions, and when he

ATLANTIC OCEAN
GERMAN OCEAN
BRITAIN
ESSEX
KENT
SAXONS
ANGLES
SUEVES
Cologne
Rhine R.
Weser R.
Seine R.
Paris
Treves
Loire R.
Orleans
Chalons
Strasburg
GAUL
Toulouse
Pyrenees
Arles
Rhone R.
Aquileia
Douro R.
SPAIN
Tagus R.
Narbonne
ROME
BALEARES IS.
Straits of Gibraltar
Carthago Nova
MEDITERRANEAN
Carthage
THE MIGRATIONS OF THE GERMANS in the FIFTH CENTURY
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Scale of Miles.
20
10
60
0
10
50
40
30
0
10


20
30
40
50
60
FINNS
Volga R.
Dwina R.
SCYTHIANS AND TARTARS
DALS
LITHUANS
Vistula R.
Carpathian Mts.
Dnieper R.
EAST GOTHS
Don R.
Volga R.
CASPIAN SEA
WEST GOTHS
?)Attila's Palace
Caucasus Mts.
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
Constantinople
ROMAN EMPIRE OF THE EAST
Adrianople
ASIA MINOR
SYRIA
EAN SEA
Alexandria
Nile
EXPLANATION.
LIMITS OF ATTILA'S EMPIRE ABOUT 450
VANDALS
WEST GOTHS
EAST GOTHS
FRANKS
SAXONS AND ANGLES
20 from Greenwich
30
40

MAP OF EUROPE IN THE TIME OF THEODORIC

It will be noticed that Theodoric's kingdom of the East Goths included a considerable part of what we call Austria today, and that the West Gothic kingdom extended into southern France. The Vandals held northern Africa and the adjacent islands. The Burgundians lay in between the East Goths and the Franks. The Lombards, who were later to move down into Italy, were in Theodoric's time east of the Bavarians, after whom modern Bavaria is named. Some of the Saxons invaded England, but many remained in Germany, as indicated on the map. The Eastern Empire, which was all that remained of the Roman Empire, included the Balkan Peninsula, Asia Minor, and the eastern portion of the Mediterranean. The Britons in Wales, the Picts in Scotland, and the Scots in Ireland were Celts; consequently modern Welsh, Gaelic, and Irish are closely related and all of them belong to the Celtic group of languages

became king he did his best to preserve them. The old offices and titles were retained, and Goth and Roman lived under the same Roman law. Order was maintained and learning encouraged. In Ravenna, which Theodoric chose for his capital, beautiful buildings still exist that date from his reign.

293. Code of Justinian. The year after Theodoric's death one of the greatest emperors of the East, Justinian (527–565), came to the throne at Constantinople. He employed a very able lawyer to gather together all the numerous laws which had grown up since the age of the Twelve Tables (§ 188) a thousand years before. This collection of decisions of famous Roman judges became the foundation of law for later ages, and still greatly influences the laws of civilized peoples of today.

Justinian undertook to regain for his empire the provinces in Africa and Italy that had been occupied by the Vandals and East Goths. He overthrew the Vandal kingdom in northern Africa in 534, and so completely defeated the Goths in 553 that they agreed to leave Italy with all their movable possessions.

294. The Lombards occupy Italy. Immediately after the death of Justinian the country was overrun by the Lombards, the last of the great German peoples to establish themselves within the bounds of the former Empire. The newcomers first occupied the region north of the Po, which has ever since been called "Lombardy" after them, and then extended their conquests southward. They were unable, however, to gain possession of all of Italy. Rome, Ravenna, and southern Italy continued to be held by the emperors at Constantinople. Their kingdom lasted over two hundred years, until it was conquered by Charlemagne.

295. The Franks and their Conquests. While Theodoric had been establishing his kingdom in Italy, Gaul, which we now call France, was coming under the control of the most powerful of all the barbarian peoples, the *Franks*. (The map on the previous page will give an idea of the new German kingdoms in Theodoric's time.) The various kingdoms established by the German chieftains were not very permanent, as we have seen. The Franks, however, succeeded in conquering more territory than any other people

THE DOMINIONS OF THE FRANKS UNDER THE MEROVINGIANS

This map shows how the Frankish kingdom grew up. Clovis, while still a young man, defeated the Roman general Syagrius in 486, near Soissons, and so added the region around Paris to his possessions. He added Alemannia on the east in 496. In 507 he made Paris his capital and conquered Aquitania, previously held by the West Goths. He also made a beginning in adding the kingdom of the Burgundians to his realms. He died in 511. His successors in the next half century completed the conquest of Burgundy and added Provincia, Bavaria, and Gascony. There were many divisions of the Frankish realms after the time of Clovis, and the eastern and western portions, called Austrasia and Neustria, were often ruled by different branches of the *Merovingians*, as Clovis's family was called from his ancestor *Meroveus*, the supposed founder of his line

and in founding an empire far more important than the kingdoms of the West and East Goths, the Vandals, or the Lombards.

When the Franks are first heard of in history they were settled along the lower Rhine, from Cologne to the North Sea. In the early part of the fifth century they had occupied the district which forms today the kingdom of Belgium, as well as the regions

east of it. In 486 they went forth under their great king Clovis (a name that later grew into Louis) and defeated the Roman general who opposed them. They extended their control over Gaul as far south as the Loire, which at that time formed the northern boundary of the kingdom of the West Goths. Clovis next enlarged his empire on the east by the conquest of the Alemanni, a German people living in the region of the Black Forest and north of the Lake of Constance.

296. Conversion of Clovis (496). The battle in which the Alemanni were defeated (496) is in one respect important above all the other battles of Clovis. Although still a pagan himself, his wife had been converted to Christianity. In the midst of the battle, seeing his troops giving way, he called upon Jesus Christ and pledged himself to be baptized in his name if he would help the Franks to victory over their enemies. When he won the battle he kept his word and was baptized, together with three thousand of his warriors.

Clovis died in 511 at Paris, which he had made his residence. He and his successors, in spite of constant wars between rival sons, succeeded in extending the power of the Frankish rulers over pretty much all the territory that is included today in France, Belgium, Holland, and western Germany (see map on preceding page).

II. Results of the Barbarian Invasions

297. Fusion of the Barbarians and the Romans. As one looks back over the German invasions it is natural to ask upon what terms the newcomers lived among the old inhabitants of the Empire. The civilization in which the barbarians now found themselves gradually softened their Northern wildness. Their leaders, who held offices under the Roman government, came to have friends among highborn Romans and often married Roman women of rank. We must be on our guard against exaggerating the numbers in the various bodies of invaders. The readiness with which the Germans appear to have adopted the language and

customs of the Romans would tend to prove that the invaders formed but a small minority of the population. Since hundreds of thousands of barbarians had been absorbed during the previous five centuries, the invasions of the fifth century can hardly have made an abrupt change in the character of the population.

Indeed, the Germans and older inhabitants of the Empire appear to have had no dislike for one another except in matters of religion. The Frankish kings often appointed Romans to important positions, just as the Romans had previously selected the Germans. The two races were distinguished in one respect, however; each had its own particular law.

298. Laws of the Barbarians. The West Goths were probably the first to write down their ancient laws, using the Latin language for the purpose. Their example was followed by the Franks, the Burgundians, and later by the Lombards. These codes make up the "Laws of the Barbarians," which form our most important source of knowledge of the habits and ideas of the Germans at the time of the invasions.

299. Medieval Trials. The German laws did not provide for trials in the modern sense of the word. Instead of a decision based on evidence, one of the parties to the case had to prove that his side was right by one of the following methods:

1. He might solemnly swear that he was telling the truth, and get as many other persons of his own class as the court required to swear that they believed that he was telling the truth. This was called *compurgation*. It was believed that God would punish those who swore falsely.

2. On the other hand, the parties to the case, or persons representing them, might meet in combat, on the supposition that Heaven would grant victory to the right. This was the so-called *wager of battle*.

3. Lastly, one or other of the parties might be required to submit to the *ordeal* in one of its various forms: He might plunge his arm into hot water or carry a bit of hot iron for some distance, and if at the end of three days he showed no ill effects the case was decided in his favor. Or he might be ordered to walk over

hot plowshares, and if he was not burned it was assumed that God had intervened by a miracle to establish the right. This method of trial is but one example of the rude civilization which displaced the refined and elaborate organization of the Romans.

300. Ignorance of the Early Middle Ages. While the barbarian tribes differed in their habits and character, they all agreed in knowing nothing of the art, literature, and science which had been developed by the Greeks and adopted by the Romans. For a period of three hundred years scarcely a person was to be found who could write out, even in the worst Latin, an account of the events of his day. Everything conspired to discourage education. The great centers of learning—Carthage, Rome, Alexandria, Milan—had all been partially destroyed by the invaders. The libraries which had been kept in the temples of the pagan gods were often burned, along with the temples themselves, by Christian enthusiasts, who were not sorry to see the heathen books disappear with the heathen religion.

301. Most Medieval Notions to be found in the Late Roman Empire. It would be a great mistake to suppose, however, that Roman civilization suddenly disappeared at this time as a result of the incoming barbarians. Many of the ideas and conditions which prevailed after the invasions were common enough before. Even the ignorance and strange ideas which we associate particularly with the Middle Ages are to be found in the later Roman Empire. Long before the German conquest art and literature had begun to decline toward the level that they reached in the early Middle Ages.

The term "Middle Ages" is generally applied to the period of about a thousand years which elapsed between the break-up of the Roman Empire and the opening of the sixteenth century. But it should be remembered that there was a great difference between the dark period of the *early* Middle Ages and the remarkable achievements of the *late* Middle Ages which will be described in due time.

III. The Mohammedan Invasion of Europe

302. Mohammed. While the German barbarians were overwhelming the Empire from the north, a young camel driver in far-away Mecca was devising a religion in the name of which his followers invaded the eastern and southern portions of Europe.

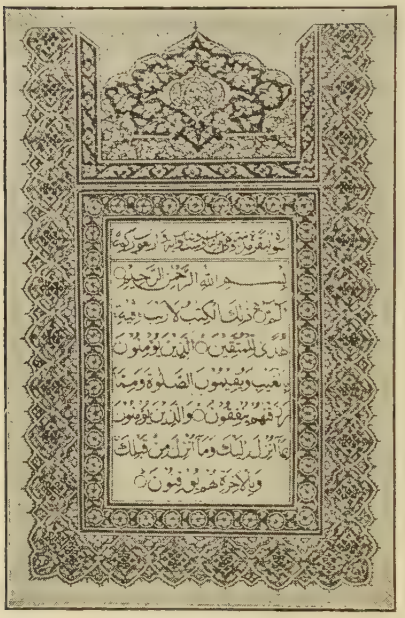
Before the time of Mohammed, the Arabs (a branch of the great Semitic people) had played no great part in the world's history. The scattered tribes were constantly at war with one another, and each tribe worshiped its own gods, when it worshiped at all. Mecca was considered a sacred spot, however, and the fighting was stopped four months each year so that all could peacefully visit the holy city.

As Mohammed traveled back and forth across the desert with his trains of camels heavily laden with merchandise he became convinced that God was sending him messages which it was his duty to reveal to mankind. He met many Jews and Christians, of whom there were great numbers in Arabia, and from them he got some ideas of the Old and New Testaments. But when he tried to convince people that he was God's prophet, he was treated with scorn.

Finally, he discovered that his enemies in Mecca were planning to kill him, and he fled to the neighboring town of Medina, where he had friends. His flight, which took place in the year 622, is called the *Hejira* by the Arabs. It was taken by his followers as the beginning of a new era—the year One, as the Mohammedans reckon time.

303. *Islam* and the *Koran*. It was eight years before his followers became numerous enough to enable him to march upon Mecca and take it with a victorious army. Before his death in 632 he had gained the support of all the Arab chiefs, and his new religion, which he called *Islam* (meaning "reconciliation," by which he meant reconciliation to Allah, the sole God), was accepted throughout the whole Arabian peninsula. The new believers he called Muslims (Moslems), meaning "the reconciled." By us they are often called Mohammedans, after their prophet.

Mohammed could probably neither write nor read well, but when he fell into trances from time to time he would repeat to his eager listeners the words which he heard from heaven, and they in turn wrote them down. These sayings, which were collected into a volume shortly after his death, form the *Koran*, the Mohammedan Bible.



ARABIC WRITING

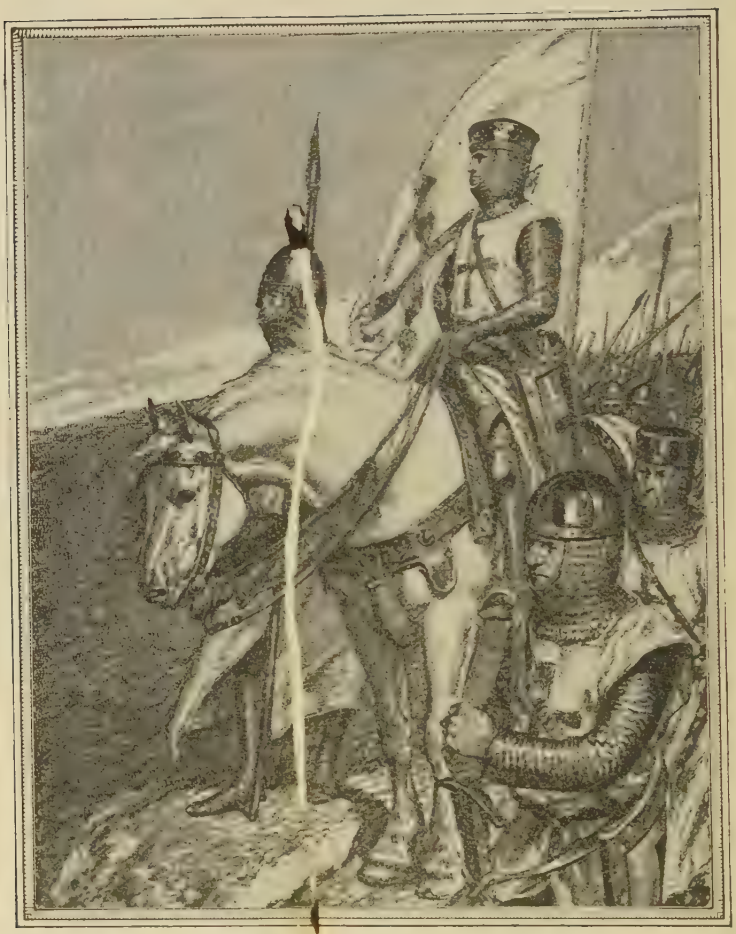
This is a page from the Koran, with an elaborate decorated border. It gives an idea of the appearance of Arabic writing. The Arabic letters are, next to the Roman alphabet, which we use, the most widely employed in the world

The Koran announces a day of judgment when the heavens shall be opened and the mountains be powdered and become like flying dust. Then all men shall receive their reward. Those who have refused to accept Islam shall be banished to hell to be burned and tormented forever.

Those, on the other hand, who have obeyed the Koran, especially those who die fighting for Islam, shall find themselves in a garden of delight. They shall recline in rich brocades upon soft cushions and rugs and be served by surpassingly beautiful maidens, with eyes like hidden pearls. Wine may be drunk there, but "their heads shall not ache with it, neither shall they be confused." They shall be content with their past life and shall hear no foolish words; and there shall be no sin, but only the greeting "Peace, peace."

304. Mosques. The mosques, or temples, are often very beautiful buildings, especially in important Mohammedan cities such as

THE MOHAMMEDAN CONQUESTS AT THEIR GREATEST EXTENT, ABOUT THE YEAR 750 (INDICATED BY OBLIQUE SHADING, UNBROKEN LINES)



A Crusader and his Followers

See Chapter XIX, pp. 237–247

Jerusalem, Damascus, and Cairo. They have great courts surrounded by covered colonnades and are adorned with beautiful marbles and mosaics and delightful windows with bright stained glass. The walls are decorated with passages from the Koran, and the floors are covered with rich rugs. They have one or more minarets, from which the call to prayer is heard five times a day.

305. Rise of the Oriental Empire of the Moslems. The Moslem leaders who succeeded to Mohammed's power were called *caliphs*. As rulers they proved to be men of the greatest ability. They organized the untamed desert nomads, who now added a burning religious zeal to the wild courage of barbarian Arabs. This combination made the Arab armies of the caliphs irresistible. Within a few years after Mohammed's death they took Egypt and Syria from the feeble successors of Justinian at Constantinople. They thus reduced the Eastern Empire to little more than the Balkan Peninsula and Asia Minor. At the same time the Arabs crushed the empire of the New Persians (§ 276), but took over their city civilization.

With the ruins of Babylon looking down upon them the Moslems built their splendid capital at Bagdad beside the New Persian royal residence at Ctesiphon. Here, as Sargon's people and as the Persians had so long before done, the Arabs learned to read and write and could thus put the Koran into writing. Here, too, they learned the business of government and became experienced rulers. Thus beside the shapeless mounds of the older capitals—Akkad, Babylon, and Ctesiphon—the power and civilization of the Orient rose into new life for the last time. Bagdad became the finest city of the East and one of the most splendid in the world. The caliphs extended their power eastward to the frontiers of India.

306. The Moslem Advance to the West; the Battle of Tours. Westward the Moslems pushed along the African coast of the Mediterranean, as their Phœnician kindred had done before them (§ 83). Only two generations after the death of Mohammed the Arabs crossed over from Africa into Spain (A.D. 711); then they moved on into France and threatened to girdle the entire

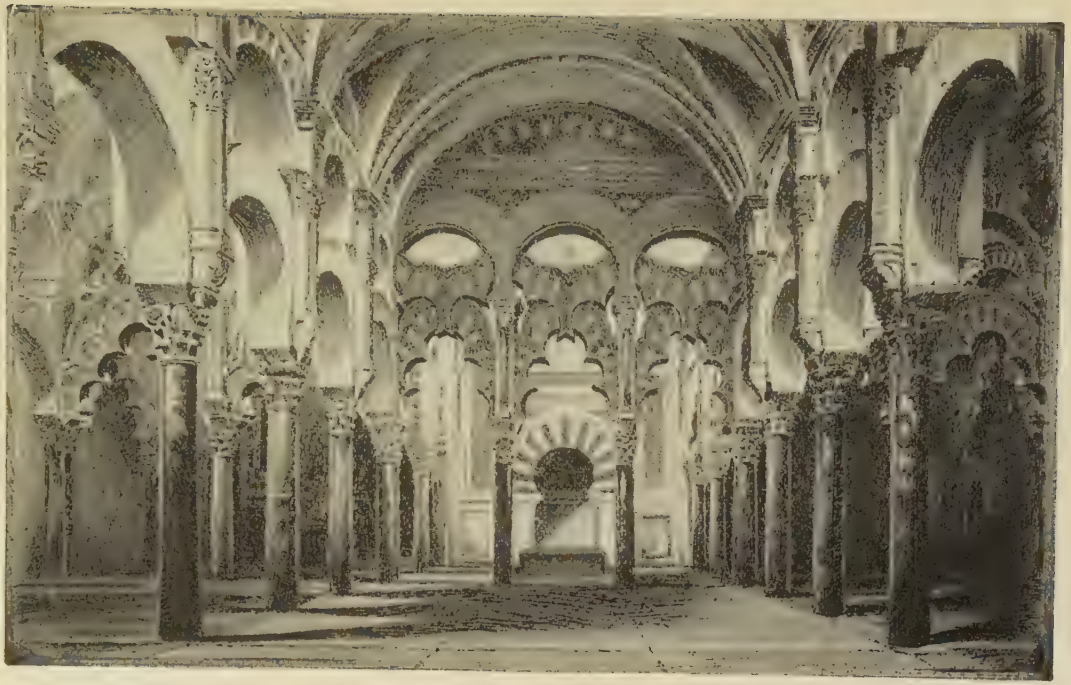
Mediterranean. At the battle of Tours (A.D. 732), however, the Moslems were unable to crush the Frankish army under their leader, Charles the Hammer. They withdrew permanently from France into Spain, where they established a western Moslem kingdom, which we call Moorish.

307. Leadership of Moslem Civilization. The Moorish kingdom developed a civilization far higher than that of the Franks, and, indeed, the highest in the Europe of that age. Thus while Europe was sinking into the ignorance of the early Middle Ages the Moslems were the leading students of science, astronomy, mathematics, and grammar. There was soon much greater knowledge of these matters among Mohammedans than in Christian Europe. Such Arabic words as *algebra* and our numerals, which we received from the Arabs, suggest how much we owe to them.

Some of the buildings which they erected soon after their arrival still stand. Among these is the mosque at Cordova with its forest of columns and arches. They also erected a great tower at Seville, famous for its beauty. This has been copied by the architects of Madison Square Garden in New York. The Mohammedans built beautiful palaces and laid out charming gardens. One of these palaces, the Alhambra, built at Granada some centuries after their arrival in Spain, is a marvel of lovely detail (see cut facing this page). They also founded a great university at Cordova, to which Christians from the North sometimes went in search of knowledge. Had the Mohammedans been permitted to settle in southern France, they might have developed science and art far more rapidly than did the Franks.

IV. The Work of the Christian Church

308. The Church begins to perform the Functions of Government. The chief importance of the medieval Church for the student of history does not lie in its religious functions, vital as they were, but rather in its remarkable relations to the government. From the days of Constantine on, the Catholic Church had usually enjoyed the hearty support of the government. As



INTERIOR OF THE GREAT MOSQUE OF CORDOVA (LATTER PART OF TENTH CENTURY)

COURT OF THE LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA (BEGUN IN 1377)

long as the emperors remained strong and active there was no reason for the clergy to assume any responsibility in the management of the State. But as the great Empire fell apart the Church was often called upon to assist in matters which properly belonged to the government.

The authority of the various barbarian kings was seldom sufficient to keep their realms in order. There were always many powerful landholders scattered throughout the kingdom who did pretty much what they pleased and settled their grudges against their fellows by neighborhood wars. Fighting was the main business as well as the chief amusement of this class. The king was unable to maintain peace and protect the oppressed, however anxious he may have been to do so.

Under these circumstances it naturally fell to the Church to keep order, when it could, by either threats or persuasion; to see that contracts were kept, the wills of the dead carried out, and marriage obligations observed. It took the defenseless widow and orphan under its protection and dispensed charity; it promoted education at a time when few laymen, however rich and noble, could even read. These conditions serve to explain why the Church was finally able so greatly to extend the powers which it had enjoyed under the Roman Empire, and why it undertook duties which seem to us to belong to the State rather than to a religious organization.

309. Origin of Papal Power. We must now turn to a consideration of the origin and growth of the supremacy of the popes, who, by raising themselves to the head of the Western Church, became in many respects more powerful than any of the kings and princes with whom they frequently found themselves in bitter conflict. There had always been a tradition that Peter was the first bishop of Rome. The belief appears to have been generally accepted at least as early as the middle of the second century. Peter enjoyed a preëminence among the other apostles and was singled out by Christ upon several occasions. In a passage of the New Testament (Matt. xvi, 18–19), which has affected history more profoundly than the edicts of the most powerful

converting the heathen. Consequently, before considering his missionary achievements, we must glance at the origin and character of the monks, who are so conspicuous throughout the Middle Ages.

V. The Monks and their Missions

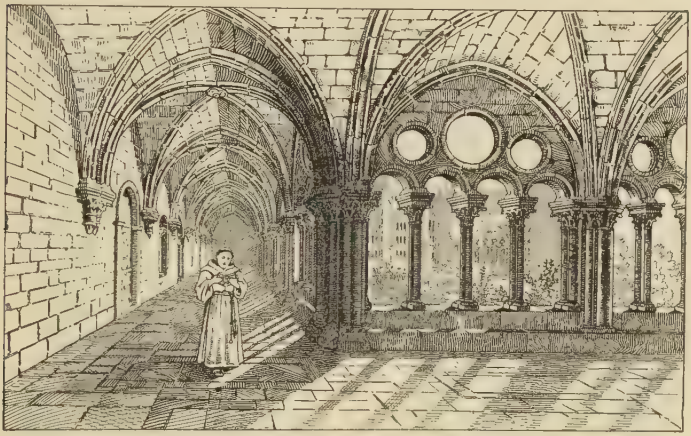
314. Importance of the Monks. It would be difficult to overestimate the influence that the monks and other religious orders exercised for centuries in Europe. The proud annals of the Benedictines, Franciscans, Dominicans, and Jesuits contain many a distinguished name. Eminent philosophers, historians, artists, and poets may be found in their ranks. Among those who have made themselves famous are "The Venerable Bede," Boniface, Thomas Aquinas, Roger Bacon, Fra Angelico, Luther, Erasmus, Loyola; all these, and many other leaders in various branches of human activity, were monks, or members of religious orders.

315. Monasticism appealed to Many Classes. The life in a monastery appealed to many different kinds of people. The monastery was the natural refuge not only of the religiously minded but of those of a studious or thoughtful disposition who disliked the career of a soldier and were disinclined to face the dangers and uncertainties of the times. It furnished, too, a refuge for the friendless, an asylum for the unfortunate, and sometimes food and shelter for the indolent, who would otherwise have had to earn their living. There were, therefore, many different motives which led people to enter monasteries. Kings and nobles, for the good of their souls, readily gave land upon which to found colonies of monks, and there were plenty of remote spots in the mountains and forests to invite those who wished to escape from the world and its temptations, its dangers, or its cares.[1]

316. Rule of St. Benedict. Monastic communities first developed on a large scale in Egypt in the fourth century. In the sixth century monasteries multiplied so rapidly in western Europe that it became necessary to establish definite rules for them.

[1] Later, monasteries were sometimes built in towns or just outside the walls.

Accordingly St. Benedict drew up, about the year 526, a sort of constitution for the monastery of Monte Cassino, in southern Italy, of which he was the head. This "Rule of St. Benedict," as it is called, so well met the needs of the monastic life that it gradually became the "plan" according to which all the Western monks lived.



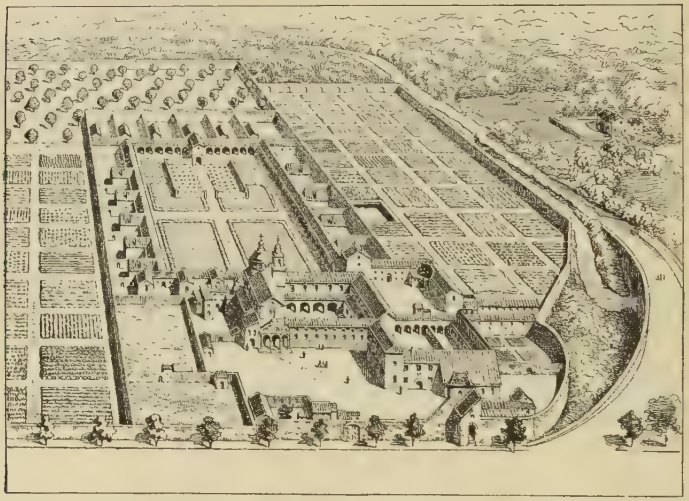
CLOISTERS OF HEILIGENKREUZ

This picture of the cloister in the German monastery of Heiligenkreuz is chosen to show how the more ordinary monastery courts looked, with their pleasant, sunny gardens

The Rule of St. Benedict is as important as any constitution that was ever drawn up for a state. It provided that the brethren should elect the head of the monastery—the abbot, as he was called. Along with frequent prayer and meditation the monks were to do the necessary cooking and washing for the monastery and raise the necessary vegetables and grain. They were also to read and teach. Those who were incapacitated for outdoor work were assigned lighter tasks, such as copying books.

317. The Monastic Vows. The monk had to take the three vows of obedience, poverty, and purity. He was to obey the abbot without question in all matters that did not involve his committing a sin. He pledged himself to perpetual and absolute

poverty; he was not permitted to own anything whatsoever—not even a book or a pen. He was also required to pledge himself that he would never marry; for not only was the single life considered more holy than the married, but the monastic organization would have been impossible unless the monks remained single.



MONASTERY OF VAL DI CRISTO

This monastery in southern Spain has two cloisters, the main one lying to the left. The buildings were surrounded by vegetable gardens and an orchard which supplied the monks with food. We know that we are viewing the monastery from the west, for the church faces us

318. How the Monks contributed to Civilization. With the great loss of manuscripts due to the destruction of libraries and the general lack of interest in books, it was most essential that new copies should be made. Almost all the books written by the Romans disappeared altogether during the Middle Ages, but from time to time a monk would copy out the poems of Virgil, Horace, or Ovid, or the speeches of Cicero. In this way some of the chief works of the Latin writers have continued to exist down to the present day.

The monks regarded good hard work as a great aid to salvation. They set the example of careful cultivation of the lands about their monasteries and in this way introduced better farming methods into the regions where they settled. They entertained travelers at a time when there were few or no inns and so increased the intercourse between the various parts of Europe.

319. Arrangement of a Monastery. The home which the monks constructed for themselves was called a monastery or abbey. The buildings were arranged around a court, called the *cloister*. On all four sides of this was a covered walk, which made it possible to reach all the buildings without exposing one's self to either the rain or the hot sun.

On the north side of the cloister was the *church*, which usually faced west. As time went on and certain groups of monks were given a great deal of property, they constructed very beautiful churches for their monasteries. Westminster Abbey, for instance, was originally the church of a monastery lying outside the city of London.

On the west side of the cloister were storerooms for provisions; on the south side was the "refectory," or dining room, and a sitting room; and to the east of the cloister was the "dormitory," where the monks slept.

The Benedictine Rule provided that the monks should so far as possible have everything for their support on their own land. So outside the group of buildings around the cloister would be found the garden, the orchard, the mill, a fishpond, and fields for raising grain. There were also a hospital for the sick and a guest house for pilgrims or poor people who happened to come along.

320. The Monks as Missionaries. The first great undertaking of the monks was the conversion of those German peoples who had not yet been won over to Christianity. In this they were successful and the strength of the Roman Catholic Church was greatly increased. The first people to engage the attention of the monks were the heathen German tribes who had conquered the once Christian Britain.

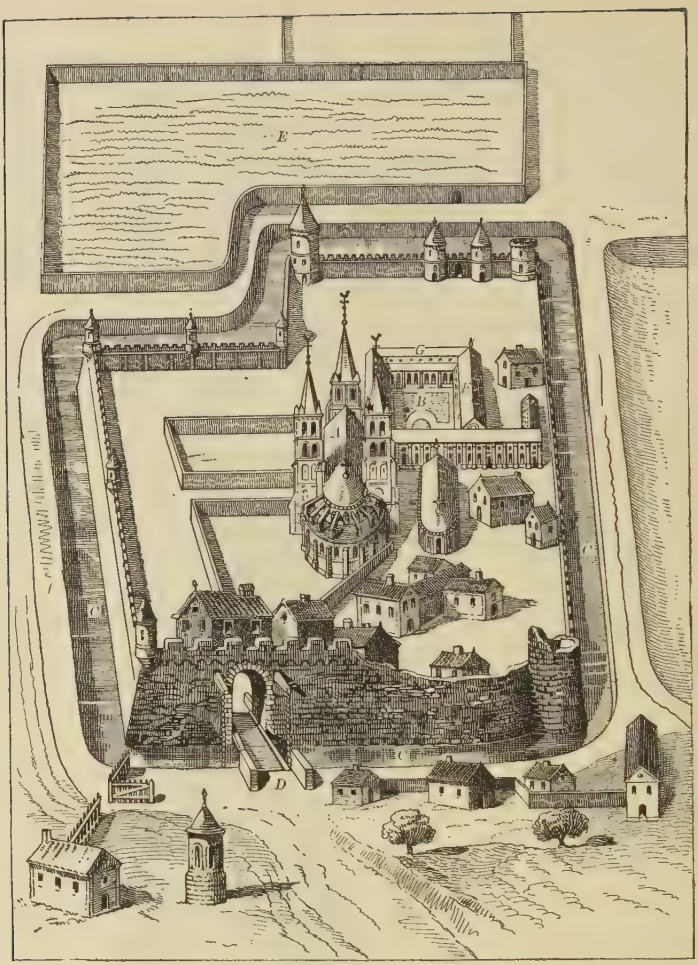
321. Saxons and Angles conquer Britain. The islands which are now known as the kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland were at the opening of the Christian Era occupied by several Celtic peoples of whose customs and religion we know almost nothing. Julius Cæsar commenced the conquest of the islands (55 B.C.) (§ 234). But the Romans never succeeded in establishing their power beyond the wall which they built from the Clyde to the Firth of Forth to keep out the wild tribes of the North. Even south of the wall the country was not completely Romanized, and the Celtic tongue has actually survived down to the present day in Wales.

At the opening of the fifth century the barbarian invasions forced Rome to withdraw its legions from Britain in order to protect its frontiers on the Continent. The island was thus left to be conquered gradually by the Germanic peoples, mainly Saxons and Angles, who came across the North Sea from the region south of Denmark. Almost all record of what went on during the two centuries following the departure of the Romans has disappeared. No one knows the fate of the original Celtic inhabitants of England. It was formerly supposed that they were all killed or driven to the mountain districts of Wales, but this seems unlikely. More probably they were gradually lost among the dominating Germans, with whom they merged into one people. The Saxon and Angle chieftains established small kingdoms, of which there were seven or eight in the time of Gregory the Great (§§ 312, 313).

322. Conversion of Britain. Gregory, while still a simple monk, had been struck with the beauty of some Angles whom he saw one day in the slave market at Rome, and wished to go as a missionary to their people, but permission was refused him. When he became Pope he sent forty monks to England under the leadership of a prior named Augustine. The monks were kindly received by the king of Kent, who had a Christian wife, and were given an ancient church at Canterbury. Here they established a monastery, and from this center the conversion of the whole island was gradually accomplished. The archbishop of Canterbury has

MELROSE ABBEY

The monastery at Melrose, Scotland, was founded in the eleventh century, but the church of which we here see the ruins was not built until about 1450. Sir Walter Scott, in one of his well-known novels, *The Monastery*, describes his impressions of the way in which the monks lived



MONASTERY OF ST.-GERMAIN-DES-PRÉS, PARIS

This famous monastery, now in the midst of Paris, was formerly outside of the walls when the town was much smaller, and was fortified as shown in the picture, with a moat (*C*) and drawbridge (*D*). One can see the abbey church (*A*), which still stands; the cloister (*B*); the refectory, or dining room (*E*); and the long dormitory (*G*). It was common in the age of disorder to fortify monasteries and sometimes even churches, as nothing was so sacred as to protect it from the danger of attack

always maintained his early preëminence and down to this day is considered the chief prelate of the English church.

323. St. Boniface, the Apostle to the Germans. In 718 St. Boniface, an English monk, was sent by the Pope as a missionary to the Germans. He succeeded in converting many of the more remote German tribes, who had still retained their old pagan beliefs. His energetic methods are illustrated by the story of how he cut down the sacred oak of the old German god Odin, at Fritzlar, in Hesse, and used the wood to build a chapel, around which a monastery soon grew up.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the Roman army come to include numbers of Germans? Trace the migrations of the West Goths. Where did they finally establish their kingdom? Describe the policy of Theodoric. What is the Justinian Code? Who were the Franks? How much of modern Europe was included in their kingdom?

II. What are the "Laws of the Barbarians"? How did their trials differ from those we are familiar with today? What is meant by the Middle Ages? Contrast the civilization of the Middle Ages with that of the Roman period. What were the chief reasons why the Empire could no longer maintain itself?

III. Give an account of Mohammed's life. What were the principal features of the religion he founded? Compare the mosques with Christian churches. Compare the spread of Mohammedanism with that of Christianity. What countries were conquered by the Mohammedans? Can you mention any contributions to civilization made by the Mohammedans?

IV. In what ways did the government aid the early Christian Church? How did the Church assist the government? In what ways do you think the churches assist the government today? How did the Bishop of Rome become the recognized head of the Church in the West?

V. What were the advantages of life in a monastery in the early Middle Ages? What reasons existed then for this life which do not exist today? Describe a monastery and the life of the monks. What did the monks contribute to civilization? Describe some of their early missionary undertakings.

CHAPTER XVI

AGE OF DISORDER: FEUDALISM

I. Conquests of Charlemagne

324. How Pippin became King of the Franks (752). We have seen how the kings of the Franks conquered a large territory, including western Germany and what is called France today. As time went on, the king's chief minister, who was called the Mayor of the Palace, got almost all the power into his hands and really ruled in the place of the king. Charles the Hammer, who defeated the Mohammedans at Tours in 732 (§ 306), was the Mayor of the Palace of the western Frankish king. His son, Pippin the Short, finally determined to do away altogether with the old line of kings and put himself in their place. Before taking the decisive step, however, he consulted the Pope, who gave his approval. Pippin was then anointed king by St. Boniface, the apostle to the Germans, of whom we have spoken, and received the blessing of the Pope.[1]

325. Beginnings of Kingship by Divine Right. The kings of the German tribes had hitherto usually been successful warriors who held their office with the consent of the people, or at least of

[1] The old line of kings which was displaced by Pippin is known as the Merovingian line. Pippin and his successors are called the Carolingian line.

the nobles. Their election was not a matter that concerned the Church at all. But when, after asking the Pope's opinion, Pippin had the holy oil poured on his head,—in accordance with an ancient religious custom of the Jews,—he received the blessing and the approval of the Church. The Pope threatened with God's anger anyone who should attempt to supplant the consecrated family of Pippin.

It thus became a *religious* duty to obey the king, for he was regarded by the Church as God's representative on earth. Here we have the beginning of the later theory of kings "by the grace of God," against whom it was a sin to revolt, however bad they might be.

326. Charlemagne (ca. 742–814). Charlemagne,[1] the famous son of Pippin, became king of all the Frankish realms in 771. He is the first historical personage among the German peoples of whom we have any satisfactory knowledge.

Charlemagne was an educated man for his time and one who knew how to appreciate and encourage scholarship. While at dinner he had someone read to him; he delighted especially in history. He tried to learn writing, which was an unusual accomplishment at that time for any except churchmen, but began too late in life and got no farther than signing his name. He called learned men to his court and did much toward reëstablishing a regular system of schools.

The impression which his reign made upon men's minds continued to grow even after his death. He became the hero of a whole series of romantic adventures which were as firmly believed for centuries as his real deeds. A study of Charlemagne's reign will make clear that he was truly a remarkable person, one of the greatest figures in the world's records and deservedly the hero of the Middle Ages.

327. Charlemagne's Idea of a Great Christian Empire. It was Charlemagne's ideal to bring all the German peoples together

1 "Charlemagne" is the French form for the Latin *Carolus Magnus* (Charles the Great). We must never forget, however, that Charlemagne was not French; he spoke a German language, namely Frankish, and his favorite palaces at Aix-la-Chapelle, Ingelheim, and Nimwegen were in German regions.

into one great Christian empire. He turned his attention therefore to the Saxons, who lay to the northeast of his realm and were a constant source of alarm. The Saxons were as yet pagans and lived under much the same institutions as Tacitus had described seven centuries earlier. They had no towns or roads and were consequently difficult to conquer, for they could easily retreat into the forests or swamps when they found themselves in danger. Charlemagne never undertook during his long military career any other task half so serious as subjugating the Saxons, which occupied many years. He believed the Christianizing of these people so important a part of his duty that heavy penalties were imposed on anyone who made vows in the pagan fashion at trees or springs, who partook of their religious feasts, or who failed to present infants for baptism before they were a year old.

328. Charlemagne's Foreign Conquests. In 773 Charlemagne invaded Lombardy to protect the Pope from his enemies, took Pavia, the capital, and had himself recognized as king of the Lombards. In extending his empire Charlemagne had other peoples to deal with besides the Germans, namely the Slavs on the east (who were one day to build up the kingdoms of Poland and Bohemia and the vast Russian Empire) and the Mohammedan Moors in Spain.

A single campaign in 789 seems to have been sufficient to subdue the Slavs and force the Bohemians to acknowledge the Frankish king and to pay tribute to him. At the request of an embassy from certain dissatisfied Mohammedans, Charlemagne entered Spain and, after some years, conquered the region north of the Ebro. In this way Charlemagne began that gradual expulsion of the Mohammedans from the peninsula which was carried on until 1492, when Granada, the last Mohammedan stronghold, fell (§ 509).

329. Charlemagne crowned Emperor by the Pope. But the most famous of all the achievements of Charlemagne was his reëstablishment of the Western Empire in the year 800. Charlemagne went to Rome in that year to settle a dispute between

Pope Leo III and his enemies. To celebrate the satisfactory settlement of the difficulty the Pope held a solemn service on Christmas Day in St. Peter's. As Charlemagne was kneeling before the altar during this service the Pope approached him and set a crown upon his head, saluting him, amid the acclamations of those present, as "Emperor of the Romans." For inasmuch as Charlemagne held Rome itself in addition to his other possessions in Italy, Gaul, and Germany, it seemed appropriate to all that he should assume this august title.

330. Continuity of the Roman Empire. The empire thus reëstablished in the West was considered to be a continuation of the Roman Empire founded by Augustus. Yet it is hardly necessary to say that the position of the new emperor had little in common with that of Augustus or Constantine. In the first place, the Eastern emperors continued to reign in Constantinople for centuries, quite regardless of Charlemagne and his successors. In the second place, the German kings who wore the imperial crown after Charlemagne were generally too weak really to rule over Germany and northern Italy, to say nothing of the rest of western Europe.

II. Causes of Disorder after Charlemagne

331. Division of Charlemagne's Empire. The task of governing his vast dominions taxed even the highly gifted and untiring Charlemagne and was quite beyond the power of his successors. After his death (814) many attempts were made to divide the Empire peaceably among his descendants, but for generations they continued to fight over how much each should have. Finally it was agreed in 870, by the Treaty of Mersen, that there should be three states,—a West Frankish kingdom, an East Frankish kingdom, and a kingdom of Italy. The West Frankish realm corresponded roughly with the present boundaries of France and Belgium, and its people talked dialects derived from the spoken Latin; the East Frankish kingdom included the rest of Charlemagne's empire outside of Italy and was German in language.

332. Obstacles to maintaining Order. The Treaty of Mersen was followed by several centuries of continued disorder and local warfare. There were a number of difficulties which stood in the way of peace. In the first place, a king found it very hard to get rapidly from one part of his realms to another in order to put down

MAP OF TREATY OF MERSEN

This map shows the division of Charlemagne's empire made in 870 by his descendants in the Treaty of Mersen

rebellions, for the Roman roads (§ 256), which had been so admirably constructed, had fallen into disrepair, and the bridges had been carried away by floods. Besides, the king had very little money. There were not many gold or silver mines in western Europe, and there was no supply of precious metals from outside, for commerce with the Eastern countries had largely died out. So the king had no treasury from which to pay his many officials and had to give them *land* instead of *money* in return for their services. In this way they gradually became rulers themselves within their own possessions.

333. New Invasions. Moreover, frequent new invasions from all directions kept the three parts of Charlemagne's empire, and England besides, in a state of fear and disaster. The Mohammedans, who had got possession of northern Africa and of Spain, gained control of the island of Sicily shortly after Charlemagne's death and began to terrorize Italy and southern France. On the east the Slavs whom Charlemagne had defeated in his time continued to make trouble, and the Hungarians, a savage race from Asia, penetrated into the Frankish kingdom. Finally they were driven back eastward and settled in the country now named after them—Hungary.

334. The Northmen. Lastly there came the Northmen,[1] bold and adventurous pirates from the shores of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, who not only attacked the towns on the coast of the West Frankish kingdom but made their way up the rivers, plundering and burning the villages and towns as far inland as Paris.

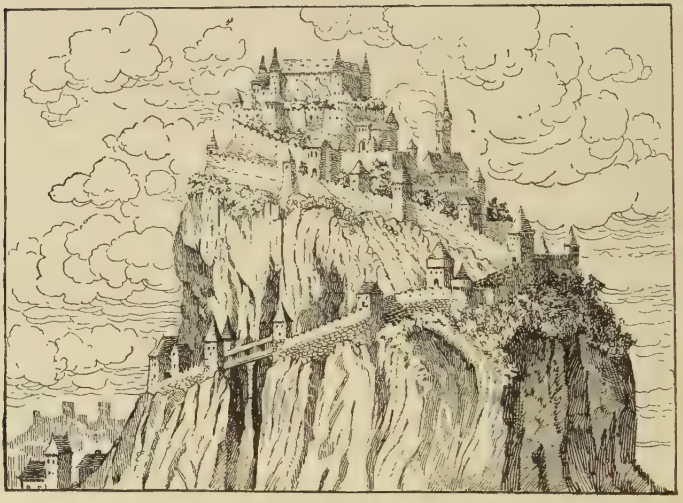
So there was danger always and everywhere. If rival nobles were not fighting one another, there were foreign invaders of some kind devastating the country, bent on robbing, maltreating, and enslaving the people whom they found in towns and villages and monasteries. No wonder that strong castles had to be built and the towns surrounded by walls.

335. Medieval Fortresses controlled by Individuals. In the absence of a powerful king with a well-organized army to support him, each district was left to look out for itself, and the people came to depend on the nobles to protect them.

The Romans had been accustomed to build walls around their camps, and a walled camp was called *castra*; in such names as Rochester, Winchester, Gloucester, Worcester, we have reminders of the fact that these towns were once fortresses. These camps, however, were all *government* fortifications and did not belong to private individuals; but as the disorder caused by the incoming barbarians increased, the various counts and dukes and other large landowners began to build forts for themselves.

[1] These Scandinavian pirates are often called *vikings*, from their habit of leaving their long boats in the *vik*, which meant, in their language, "bay" or "inlet."

336. General Arrangement of a Castle. When the castle was not on a steep rocky hill, which made it very hard to approach, a deep ditch was constructed outside the walls, called the *moat*. This was filled with water and crossed by a bridge, which could be drawn up when the castle was attacked, cutting off the



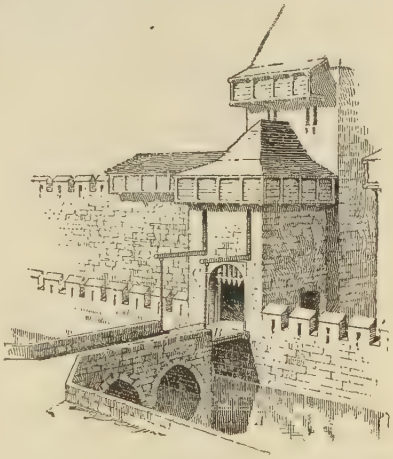
A Medieval Castle near Klagenfurt, Austria

It was not uncommon in mountainous regions to have fortresses perched so high on rocky eminences that it was practically impossible to capture them

means of approach. The doorway was further protected by a grating of heavy planks, called the *portcullis*, which could be quickly dropped down to close the entrance. Inside the castle walls was the great *donjon*, or chief tower. From the tiny windows in the towers the occupants were able to shoot arrows or pour melted pitch or lead on those attacking them. There was sometimes also a fine hall, as at Coucy (see cut facing page 212), and handsome rooms for the use of the lord and his family, although they sometimes lived in the donjon. There were buildings for storing supplies and arms, and usually a chapel.

III. Feudal System and Neighborhood Warfare

337. Gradual Development of Feudalism. Landholders who had large estates often found it to their advantage to grant some of their manors to other persons on condition that those receiving the land should pledge themselves to accompany him to war, guard his castle upon occasion, and assist him when he was put to any unusually great expense. It was in this way that the relation of *lord* and *vassal* originated. The vassal who received the land promised to be true to his lord, and the lord, on the other hand, not only let his vassal have the land but agreed to protect him when it was necessary. These arrangements between vassals and lords constituted what is called the *feudal system*.



Fortified Gate of a Medieval Castle

Here one can see the way in which the entrance to a castle was carefully protected: the moat (*A*); the drawbridge (*B*); the portcullis (*C*)

The feudal system, or feudalism, was not established by any decree of a king or in virtue of a general agreement between all the landowners. It grew up gradually and irregularly simply because it seemed convenient under the circumstances. Land granted upon these terms was called a *fief*. One who held a fief might himself become a lord by granting a portion of his fief to a vassal upon terms similar to those upon which he held his lands of his lord, or *suzerain*. The vassal of a vassal was called a *subvassal*.

338. Homage and Fidelity. The one proposing to become a vassal knelt before the lord and rendered him homage[1] by placing

[1] "Homage" is derived from the Latin word *homo*, meaning "man."

his hands between those of the lord and declaring himself the lord's "man" for such and such a fief. Thereupon the lord gave his vassal the kiss of peace and raised him from his kneeling posture. Then the vassal swore an oath of fidelity upon the Bible, or some holy relic, solemnly binding himself to fulfill all his duties toward his lord. This act of rendering homage by placing the hands in those of the lord and taking the oath of fidelity was the first and most essential duty of the vassal.

339. Feudal Obligations. The obligations of the vassal varied greatly. He was expected to join his lord when there was a military expedition, although it was generally the case that the vassal need not serve at his own expense for more than forty days.

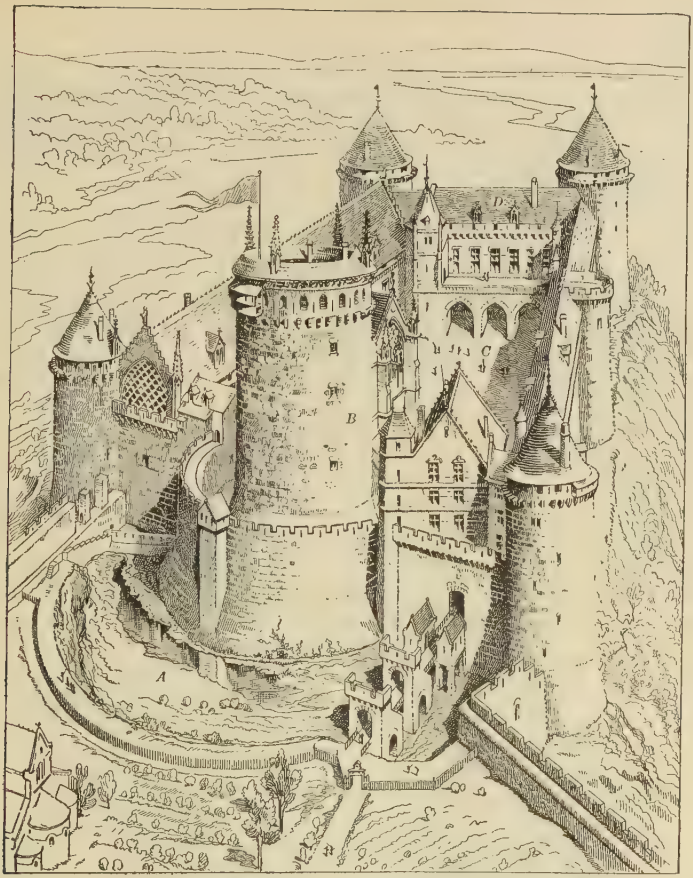
He was expected to attend the lord's court when summoned, where he sat with other vassals to hear and pronounce upon those cases in which his fellow vassals were involved.

Under certain circumstances vassals had to make money payments to their lord; as, for instance, when the lord was put to extra expense by the necessity of knighting his eldest son or providing a dowry for his daughter, or when he was captured by an enemy and was held for ransom. Lastly, the vassal might have to entertain his lord, should he be passing his castle.

340. Various Kinds of Fiefs. There were fiefs of all grades of importance, from that of a duke or count, who held directly of the king and exercised the powers of a practically independent prince, down to the holding of the simple knight, whose bit of land was barely sufficient to enable him to support himself and provide the horse upon which he rode.

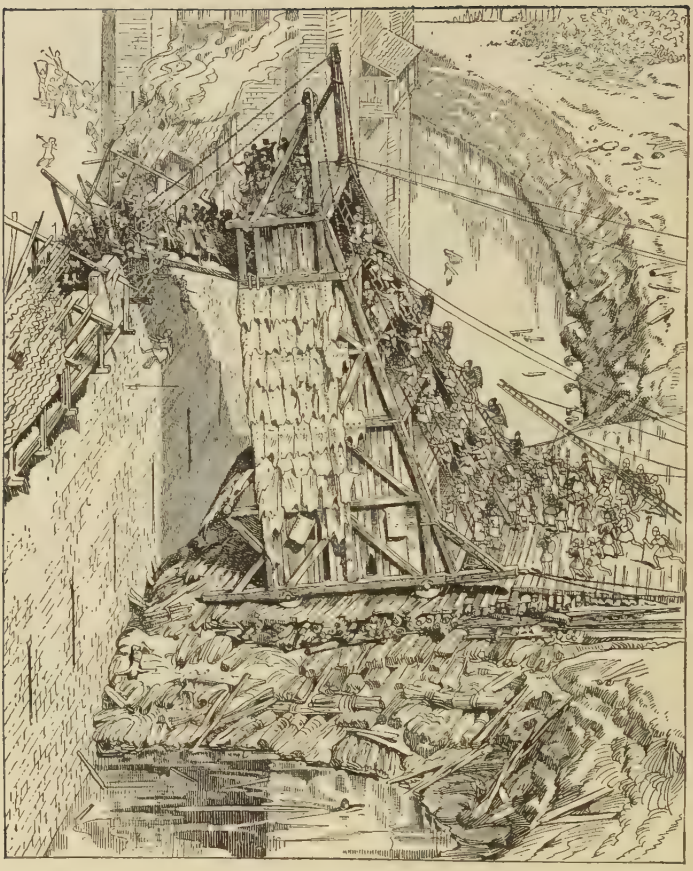
It is essential to observe that the fief became *hereditary* in the family of the vassal and passed down to the eldest son from one generation to another. So long as the vassal remained faithful to his lord and performed the stipulated services, and his successors did homage and continued to meet the conditions upon which the fief had originally been granted, neither the lord nor his heirs could rightfully regain possession of the land.

The result was that little was left to the original owner of the fief except the services and dues to which the *practical* owner,



COUCY-LE-CHÂTEAU

This castle of Coucy-le-Château was built by a vassal of the king of France in the thirteenth century. It was at the end of a hill and protected on all sides but one by steep cliffs. One can see the moat (*A*) and the double drawbridge and towers which protected the portal. The round donjon (*B*) was probably the largest in the world, one hundred feet in diameter and two hundred and ten feet high. At the base its walls were thirty-four feet thick. At the end of the inner court (*C*) was the residence of the lord (*D*). To the left of the court was a great hall and to the right were the quarters of the garrison. This ancient building was destroyed by the Germans during the recent World War



MOVABLE TOWER

This attacking tower was rolled up to the wall of the besieged tower after the moat had been filled up at the proper point. The soldiers then swarmed up the outside and over a bridge onto the wall. Skins of animals were hung on the side to prevent the tower from being set on fire

the vassal, had agreed in receiving it. In short, the fief came really to belong to the vassal, and only the shadow of ownership remained in the hands of the lord.

341. Subvassals of the King not under his Control. Obviously the great vassals who held directly of the king became almost independent of him as soon as their fiefs were granted to them and their descendants. Their vassals, since they had not done homage to the king himself, often paid little attention to his commands. From the ninth to the thirteenth century the king of France or the king of Germany did not rule over a great realm occupied by subjects who owed him obedience as their lawful sovereign, paid him taxes, and were bound to fight under his banner as the head of the State. As a feudal landlord himself the king had a right to demand fidelity and certain services from those who were his vassals. But the great mass of the people over whom he nominally ruled, whether they belonged to the nobility or not, owed little to the king *directly*, because they lived upon the lands of other feudal lords more or less independent of him.

342. War the Law of the Feudal World. One has only to read a chronicle of the time to discover that brute force ruled everywhere outside of the Church. The feudal obligations were not fulfilled except when the lord was sufficiently powerful to enforce them. The oath of fidelity was constantly broken, and faith was violated by both vassal and lord.

We may say that war, in all its forms, was the law of the feudal world. War formed the chief occupation of the restless nobles who held the land and were supposed to govern it. The feudal bonds, instead of offering a guarantee of peace and concord, appear to have been a constant cause of violent ill-feeling and conflict. Everyone was bent upon profiting to the full by the weakness of his neighbor.

In theory, the lord could force his vassals to settle their disputes in an orderly manner before his court; but often he was neither able nor inclined to bring about a peaceable adjustment, and he would frequently have found it hard to enforce the decisions of his own court. So the vassals were left to fight out

their quarrels among themselves, and they found their chief interest in life in so doing.

343. The "Truce of God." The horrors of this constant fighting led the Church to try to check it. About the year 1000 several Church councils in southern France decreed that the fighters were not to attack churches or monasteries, churchmen, pilgrims, merchants, or women, and that they must leave the peasant and his cattle and plow alone. Then Church councils began to issue what was known as the "Truce of God," which provided that all warfare was to stop during Lent and various other holy days as well as on Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday of every week. During the truce no one was to attack anyone else. Those besieging castles were to refrain from any assaults during the period of peace, and people were to be allowed to go quietly to and fro on their business without being disturbed by soldiers.

If anyone failed to observe the truce, he was to be excommunicated by the Church. This meant that if he fell sick no Christian should dare to visit him; on his deathbed he was not to receive the comfort of a priest, and his soul was consigned to hell if he had refused to repent and mend his ways. It is hard to say how much good the Truce of God accomplished. It is certain that many disorderly lords paid little attention to the truce and found three days a week altogether too short a time for plaguing their neighbors.

344. The Kings finally get the Better of the Feudal Lords. We must not infer that the State ceased to exist altogether during the centuries of confusion that followed the break-up of Charlemagne's empire, or that it fell entirely apart into little local governments independent of each other. The *king*, solemnly anointed by the Church, was always something more than a feudal lord. The kings were destined to get the upper hand before many centuries in England, France, and Spain, and finally in Italy and Germany, and to destroy the castles behind whose walls their haughty nobles had long defied the royal power.

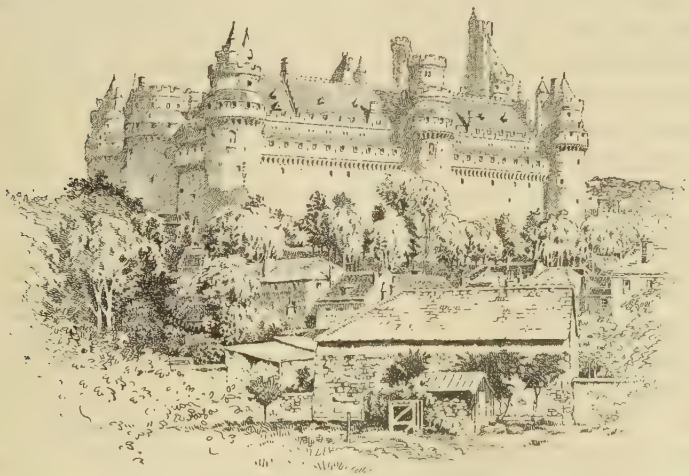
QUESTIONS

I. How did the election of Pippin differ essentially from that of earlier German kings? Why is a monarch approved by the Church more powerful than one elected by the people? Can you give any modern examples of kings by divine right? Why is Charlemagne a heroic figure in medieval history? How did Charlemagne build up an empire in western Europe? What is meant by Charlemagne's reëstablishment of the Roman Empire in the West?

II. How was Charlemagne's empire finally divided after his death? What were the general causes for disorder during the ninth and tenth centuries? Who were the chief new invaders? Explain the origin of the medieval nobles. Describe a medieval castle.

III. Describe the conditions which led to the development of the feudal system. What advantages did the lord and the vassal derive from their relationship? How did the feudal system affect the power of the king? Why was neighborhood warfare common in this period? In what ways did the Church attempt to check the constant fighting?

NOTE. This castle of Pierrefonds, not very far from Paris, was built by the brother of the king of France, about 1400. It has been carefully restored and gives one a good idea of a fortress of the period.



CHAPTER XVII

POPES, EMPERORS, AND PRINCES IN THE MIDDLE AGES

I. Origin of the Holy Roman Empire

345. Otto the Great (936–973). The East Frankish, or German part, of Charlemagne's empire had, after his death, fallen apart into big and little fiefs, and the various dukes and counts were constantly making war on each other and on their weak kings. The first German ruler, after Charlemagne, who gained much distinction was Otto the Great, who came to the throne in 936. He repelled the Hungarians, who had been a constant menace, and forced them back into eastern Europe, where they settled and finally built up the modern Hungarian state. Otto was having plenty of trouble to keep his vassals under his control, but nevertheless he determined to try to add northern Italy to his realms and succeeded in being acknowledged king of Italy. Later the Pope, needing protection from his enemies, called Otto to Rome, and, in return for his assistance, crowned him emperor, as Charlemagne's successor, in the year 962.

The coronation of Otto was a very important event for Germany; for from this time onward the German rulers, who had quite enough to do to keep their own vassals in order, were constantly distracted by efforts to keep their hold on their Italian possessions, which lay on the other side of the great mountain range of the Alps.

346. The Holy Roman Empire. Otto's successors dropped their old title of king of the East Franks as soon as they had been duly crowned by the Pope at Rome, and assumed the magnificent and all-embracing designation, "Emperor Ever August of the Romans." Their "Holy Roman Empire," as it came to be called later, was to endure, in name at least, for more than eight centuries,

but it was obviously even less like that of the ancient Romans than Charlemagne's had been. As *kings* of Germany and Italy these rulers had practically all the powers that they enjoyed as *emperors*. The title of emperor was of course a proud one, although it gave the German kings no additional power except the fatal right that they claimed of taking part in the election of the Pope. We shall find that, instead of making themselves feared at home and building up a great state, the German emperors wasted their strength in a long struggle with the popes, who proved themselves, in the end, far stronger and finally reduced the Empire to a mere shadow.

347. Lands of the Church drawn into the Feudal System. In order to understand the long struggle between the German rulers and the popes, we must recollect that great tracts of land had been given by princes and dukes, counts, and other great landed proprietors to the Church for the support of the bishoprics and monasteries. These lands of the churchmen were drawn into the feudal system described in the previous chapter. Bishops might become vassals of the king or other feudal lords by doing homage for a fief and swearing fidelity, like any other vassal. The abbots might hold the lands of a monastery as a fief.

But the bishops and abbots were forbidden by the rules of the Church to marry, so they could not hand down their possessions to their children. Consequently, when a bishop or abbot who held a fief died, someone had to be chosen in his place to succeed to the fief and perform the duties attached to the position.

348. Investiture. The bishops were, according to the rules of the Church, to be chosen by the clergy of their bishopric, and the abbot of a monastery by the monks. Their feudal superiors insisted, however, in having their say in elections, and from the time of Otto the Great on both bishops and abbots were commonly selected to all intents and purposes by the emperor or other feudal lords.

When a bishop or abbot had been duly chosen, the feudal lord proceeded to the *investiture*. The new bishop or abbot first became the "man" of the lord by doing him homage (§ 338), and

then the lord transferred to him the lands and rights attached to the office. No careful distinction appears to have been made between the property and the religious powers. The lord often conferred both by bestowing upon a bishop the ring and the crosier (the bishop's pastoral staff), the emblems of religious authority. It seemed shocking enough that the king or feudal lord, who was often a rough soldier, should dictate the selection of the bishops; but it was still more shocking that he should assume to confer religious powers with religious emblems.

349. The Marriage of the Clergy. Still another danger threatened the wealth and resources of the Church. During the tenth and eleventh centuries the rule of the Church prohibiting the clergy from marrying appears to have been widely neglected in Italy, Germany, France, and England. It was obvious that the property of the Church would soon be dispersed if the clergy were allowed to marry, since they would wish to provide for their children. Just as the feudal lands had become hereditary (§ 340), so the church lands would become hereditary unless the clergy were forced to remain unmarried.

350. Task of the Popes. A hundred years after the time of Otto the Great it seemed as if the Church would be dragged down by its property into the anarchy of feudalism. But the popes assumed the gigantic task of making the Church a great international monarchy, like the former Roman Empire, with its capital at Rome. The control of the feudal lords over the selection of the clergy must be reduced or abolished, the marriage of the clergy prohibited, and the corruption connected with Church offices checked. The first great move of the Pope was the decree of 1059 depriving the emperor of the right he claimed to control the election of the Pope and putting the choice in the hands of the *cardinals*. These were the representatives of the clergy of the city of Rome, and in their hands the election of the Pope has legally rested ever since.

351. Gregory VII and his *Dictatus*. In 1073 the most celebrated of the medieval popes, Gregory VII (often called Hildebrand), ascended the papal throne. Among his writings is a brief

statement, called the *Dictatus*, in which he sets forth the powers which he believed God had conferred on the papacy. The Pope, or Bishop of Rome, had, he claims, the right to depose or transfer any other bishop. No Church council could be regarded as speaking for Christendom without the Pope's ratification; no religious

MEDIEVAL PICTURES OF GREGORY VII

These pictures are taken from an illustrated manuscript written some decades after Gregory's death. In the one on the left Gregory is represented blowing out a candle and saying to his cardinals, "As I blow out this light, so will Henry IV be extinguished." In the one on the right is shown the death of Gregory (1085). He did not wear his crown in bed, but the artist wanted us to be sure to recognize that he was Pope

book should be deemed authoritative without his approval; no one might be considered a Catholic Christian who did not yield obedience to the commands of the Roman Mother Church.

Gregory does not stop with asserting the Pope's complete supremacy over the Church. He says that "the Pope is the only person whose feet are kissed by all princes"; that he may depose emperors and "absolve subjects from allegiance to an unjust ruler." No one shall dare to condemn one who appeals to the Pope. No one may annul a decree of the Pope, though the Pope may declare null and void the decrees of all other earthly powers; and no one may pass judgment upon his acts.

II. The Long Struggle between Popes and Emperors

352. Struggle over Investiture between Henry IV and Gregory VII. The popes who immediately preceded Gregory had more than once forbidden the churchmen to receive investiture from laymen. Gregory reissued this prohibition in 1075. In forbidding investiture by laymen Gregory attempted nothing less than a revolution. The bishops and abbots were often officers of government, exercising in Germany and Italy powers similar in all respects to those of the counts. The German king not only relied upon them for advice and assistance in carrying on his government but they were among his chief allies in his constant struggles with his vassals.

This act of Gregory's led to a long and bitter struggle between the popes and German rulers, lasting for two hundred years. Gregory's legates so irritated the young German king Henry IV that he had the Pope deposed as a wicked man (1076).

353. Gregory VII Deposes Henry IV. Gregory's reply to Henry and the German bishops who had deposed him was speedy and decisive. "Incline thine ear to us, O Peter, chief of the Apostles. As thy representative and by thy favor has the power been granted especially to me by God of binding and loosing in heaven and earth [compare § 309]. . . . I withdraw, through thy power and authority, from Henry the King, who has risen against thy Church with unheard-of insolence, the rule over the whole kingdom of the Germans and over Italy. I absolve all Christians from the bonds of the oath which they have sworn, or may swear, to him; and I forbid anyone to serve him as king."

354. Henry IV at Canossa (1077). After the Pope deposed Henry his vassals turned against him. He was so discouraged that he hastened across the Alps in midwinter and appeared as a humble suppliant before the castle of Canossa, where Gregory VII was sojourning. The Pope kept him waiting three days barefoot and in the coarse garments of a pilgrim before he would admit him. He then agreed to forgive him for the moment. The spectacle of a mighty prince of distinguished appearance in tears

10°
0°
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IRELAND
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
WALES
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
London
Hastings
Bruges
Lubeck
Aix-la-Chapelle
Cologne
Coblenz
Rouen
R. Seine
Normandy
Paris
R. Loire
HOLY
ROMAN EM
Worms
R. Rhine
FRANCE
St. Gall
Clermont
Cluny
Milan
Venice
R. Rhone
Genoa
Piacenza
Toulouse
Albi
Languedoc
Avignon
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
K. OF NAVARRE
K. OF ARAGON
R. Ebro
Marseilles
Pisa
Florence
Corsica
R. Tagus
Lisbon
EMPIRE OF THE
Cordova
Seville
Sardinia
Balearic Is.
M E D I T
ALMORAVIDES
Tunis
ALIPHATE
EUROPE AND THE ORIENT
IN 1096
On the eve of the Crusades
Christian Lands (Latin Church)
Mohammedan Lands
Christian Lands (Greek Church)
Regions still Pagan
0 100 200 300 400 500
Scale of Miles
THE M. N. WORKS, BUFFALO, N.Y.
0°
Longitude East
10° from Greenwich

20°
30°
40°
50°
BALTIC SEA
Lithuanians
Prussians
GRAND DUCHY OF RUSSIA
R. Vistula
POLAND
Kiev
R. Dnieper
R. Don
Petchenegs
Moravia
HUNGARY
Bulgars
BLACK SEA
R. Danube
Zara
SERVIA
Adrianople
Bosporus
THE EAST
EMPIRE OF
Constantinople
Nicæa
Algora
Brindisi
Otranto
Dorylæum
Hellespont
EMPIRE OF THE SELJUK TURKS
Smyrna
Ephesus
Athens
Peloponnesus
Rhodes
Cyprus
Antioch
Tripolis
Berytus
Sidon
Tyre
Acre
Damascus
Cæsarea
Jaffa
Ascalon
Gaza
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
Palestine
Crete
Damietta
Alexandria
Cairo
EGYPT
FATIMITES
THE

before a man of small stature who humbly styled himself "the servant of the servants of God" has always been regarded as typifying the power of the medieval Church when directed against even the most exalted rulers of the earth.

355. Concordat of Worms (1122). The famous scene at Canossa settled nothing, however, and the struggle went on after the death of both Gregory and Henry IV. Finally a settlement was reached at the town of Worms which ended the controversy over investitures. The churchmen were to elect their bishops and abbots and confer on them their religious powers. The German king or emperor, on the other hand, was to invest the new bishop or abbot with his fiefs and governmental powers by a touch of the scepter. The king in a way still retained his control, for he could always refuse to hand over the lands unless he was pleased with the person chosen by the churchmen.

356. Frederick I (Barbarossa) of Hohenstaufen (1152–1190). A generation after the Concordat of Worms the most famous of German emperors, next to Charlemagne, came to the throne. This was Frederick I, commonly referred to as Barbarossa (from his red beard). He belonged to the family of Hohenstaufen, so called from their castle in southern Germany. Frederick's ambition was to restore the Roman Empire to its old glory and influence. He regarded himself as the successor of the Cæsars, as well as of Charlemagne and Otto the Great. He believed his office to be quite as truly established by God himself as the papacy.

He met all the old difficulties in his life-long attempt to build up a strong empire, in which he strove to include northern Italy. He failed in this attempt and died on his way to take part in a crusade to regain the Holy Land.

357. Frederick II and Southern Italy. His gifted grandson Frederick II had married the heiress to the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, and here he built up a strong modern state far from Germany. But the popes feared the new state to the south of them, and shortly after the death of Frederick II they called in a French prince, to whom they turned over the Italian possessions of the Hohenstaufen.

358. Conditions in Germany and Italy. With the death of Frederick II in 1250 the medieval German Empire may be said to have come to an end. Rudolph of Hapsburg was made king in 1273, but Germany was not really a country but a confused mass of duchies, counties, archbishoprics, bishoprics, abbacies, and free towns. They paid little attention to their kings, who continued to claim the title of emperor but rarely went to Rome to be crowned.

Italy was also divided up into practically independent states, the Lombard towns to the north, the papal possessions across the middle of the peninsula, and, to the south, Naples, which remained under its French dynasty for a time, and the kingdom of Sicily, which drifted into the hands of a Spanish house.

III. Organization and Powers of the Church

359. General Character of the Medieval Church. In the preceding pages it has been necessary to refer constantly to the Church and the clergy. Indeed without them medieval history would become almost a blank, for the Church was incomparably the most important institution of the time, and the popes, bishops, and abbots were the soul of nearly every great enterprise. We have already had abundant proofs that the medieval Church was very different from our modern churches, whether Catholic or Protestant.

1. In the first place, everyone was required to belong to it, just as we all must belong to some country today. One was not born into the Church, it is true, but he was ordinarily baptized into it when he was a mere infant. All western Europe formed a single religious association, from which it was a crime to revolt. To refuse allegiance to the Church, or to question its authority or teachings, was regarded as treason against God—the most terrible of crimes—and was punishable, according to the laws of the time, with death (§ 395).

2. The medieval Church did not rely for its support, as churches usually must today, upon the voluntary contributions

of its members. It enjoyed, in addition to the revenue from its vast tracts of lands and a great variety of fees, the income from a regular tax, the *tithe*. Those upon whom this fell were forced to pay it, just as we all must now pay taxes imposed by the government.

3. It is clear, moreover, that the medieval Church was not merely a religious body, as churches are today. Of course it maintained places of worship, conducted devotional exercises, and cultivated the religious life; but it did far more. It was, in a way, a *State*, for it had an elaborate system of law and its own courts, in which it tried many cases which are now settled in our ordinary courts. One may get some idea of the business of the Church courts from the fact that the Church possessed the right to try all cases in which a clergyman was implicated, or anyone connected with the Church or under its special protection, such as monks, students, crusaders, widows, orphans, and the helpless. Then all cases where the rites of the Church, or its prohibitions, were involved came ordinarily before the Church courts, as, for example, those concerning marriage, wills, sworn contracts, usury, blasphemy, sorcery, heresy, and so forth. The Church even had its prisons, to which it might sentence offenders for life, if they were convicted of serious heresy.

4. The Church not only performed the functions of a State, it had the organization of a State. Unlike the Protestant ministers of today, all churchmen and religious associations of medieval Europe were under one supreme head, the Pope, who made laws for all, and controlled every church officer, wherever he might be, whether in Italy or Germany, Spain or Ireland. The whole Church had one official language, Latin, in which all communications were written and in which its services were everywhere conducted.

The control of the Pope over all parts of the Christian Church was exercised by his *legates*. These papal ambassadors were intrusted with great powers. Their haughty mien sometimes offended the prelates and rulers to whom they brought home the authority of the Pope.

The task assumed by the Pope of governing the whole Western world naturally made it necessary to create a large body of officials at Rome in order to transact all the multiform business and prepare and transmit the innumerable legal documents. The cardinals and the Pope's officials constituted what was called the papal *curia*, or court. To carry on his government and to meet the expenses of palace and retinue, the Pope had need of a vast income. This was supplied from various sources.

360. Reasons for the Great Power of Clergymen in the Middle Ages. The influence of the clergy was greatly increased by the fact that they alone were educated. For six or seven centuries after the break-up of the Roman Empire very few outside of the clergy ever dreamed of studying, or even of learning to read and write. Even in the thirteenth century an offender who wished to prove that he belonged to the clergy, in order that he might be tried by a Church court, had only to show that he could read a single line; for it was assumed by the judges that no one unconnected with the Church could read at all.

It was inevitable, therefore, that all the teachers were clergymen, that almost all the books were written by priests and monks, and that the clergy were the ruling power in all intellectual, artistic, and literary matters—the chief guardians and promoters of civilization. Moreover, the civil government was forced to rely upon churchmen to write out the public documents and proclamations. The priests and monks held the pen for the king. Representatives of the clergy sat in the king's councils and acted as his ministers; in fact, the conduct of the government largely devolved upon them.

361. Excommunication and Interdict. No wonder that the churchmen were by far the most powerful class in the Middle Ages. They controlled great wealth; they were the most highly educated class; it was believed they held the keys of the kingdom of heaven and without their aid no one could hope to enter in. By excommunication they could cast out the enemies of the Church and could forbid all men to associate with them, since they were accursed. By means of the *interdict* they could suspend

all religious ceremonies in a whole city or country by closing the church doors and prohibiting all public services.

362. Chief Sources of Difficulty between Church and State. But as the period of feudal disorder drew to an end, and the kings and other rulers got the better of the feudal lords and established peace in their realms, they began to think that the Church had become too powerful and too rich. Certain difficulties arose of which the following were the most important:

1. Should the king or the Pope have the right of selecting the bishops and the abbots of rich monasteries? Naturally both were anxious to place their friends and supporters in these influential positions. Moreover, the Pope, like the king, could claim a considerable contribution from those whom he appointed.

2. How far might the king venture to tax the lands and other property of the Church? Was this vast amount of wealth to go on increasing and yet make no contribution to the support of the government? The churchmen usually urged that they needed all their money to carry on the church services, keep up the churches and monasteries, take care of the schools, and aid the poor, for the State left them to bear all these necessary burdens. The law of the Church permitted the churchmen to make voluntary gifts to the king when there was urgent necessity.

3. Then there was disagreement over the cases to be tried in the Church courts and the claim of churchmen to be tried only by clergymen. Above all was the habit of appealing cases to Rome, for the Pope would often decide the matter in exactly the opposite way from that in which the king's court had decided it.

4. Lastly, there was the question of how far the Pope as head of the Christian Church had a right to interfere with the government of a particular state when he did not approve of the way in which a king was acting. The powers of the Pope were very great, everyone admitted, but even the most devout Catholics differed somewhat as to just how great they were.

We have seen some illustrations of these troubles in the case of the popes and the German emperors. Many others might be given were there space to do so.

363. Babylonian Captivity and Great Schism (1305–1415). By the year 1300 the kings of England and France were coming into a position to enforce their claims against the Church. The power of the popes was weakened for various reasons, and finally the French king was able to get the seat of the papacy transferred from Rome to Avignon, a city on his frontier. Here the popes remained for over seventy years (1305–1377). This Babylonian Captivity, as it is called, was followed by a series of disputed elections,—the "Great Schism,"—during which Europe was divided on the question as to who was the rightful Pope. Finally, in the fifteenth century, the popes once more regained a considerable part of the influence over European affairs that they had enjoyed in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries and returned to their ancient capital.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the king of the East Franks come to have the title of Emperor of the Romans? What was the Holy Roman Empire? How was the Church drawn into the feudal system? In what ways did the feudal system threaten the prestige and resources of the Church? What measures did the Church take to meet these difficulties? How is the Pope elected today? What is the college of cardinals? What were the powers of the Pope as claimed in the *Dictatus* of Gregory VII? Has the Pope more or less power today than he had in the time of Gregory VII?

II. Give an account of the famous struggle between Henry IV and Gregory. How was the question of investiture finally settled? How did the medieval German Empire come to an end?

III. Give a picture of the medieval Church at the height of its power. In what ways did it resemble an international state? Why was the clergy so important in the Middle Ages? What were the chief sources of difference between Church and State? What was the Babylonian Captivity?

CHAPTER XVIII

ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

I. The Norman Conquest

364. Peculiar Interest of English History. The history of England is naturally of especial interest to all English-speaking peoples, for it is from the English that they have derived their language, their habits of thought, much of their literature, and many of their laws and institutions. In this volume it will, however, be possible to study England only as it played a part in general European history.

365. The Danes and Alfred the Great (871–901). The conquest of Britain by the Angles and Saxons and their conversion to Christianity by Augustine and his monks has already been spoken of (§§ 321–322). These invasions had scarcely come to an end before the Northmen (or Danes, as the English called them), who were ravaging France (§ 334), began to make incursions into England. They were defeated, however, by Alfred the Great, the first English king of whom we know much. Alfred forced the Danes to accept Christianity and keep out of southern England. But the Danes continued to make trouble, and finally a Danish king (Cnut) succeeded in making himself king of all England in 1017. The Danish dynasty did not last many years and was succeeded by a weak Saxon king, Edward the Confessor.

Upon his death one of the greatest events in English history occurred. The most powerful of the vassals of the king of France crossed the English Channel, conquered England, and made himself its king. This was William the Conqueror.

366. France in the Middle Ages. The old West Frankish kingdom, which we shall now call France, was, like Germany,

divided up among a great many dukes and counts who built strong castles, gathered armies, and paid little attention to their kings.

In the tenth century certain great fiefs, like Normandy, Brittany, Flanders, and Burgundy, developed into little nations, each under its line of able rulers. These little feudal states were created by certain families of nobles who possessed exceptional energy or statesmanship. By conquest, purchase, or marriage they increased the number of their fiefs, and they insured their control over their vassals by promptly destroying the castles of those who refused to meet their obligations.

367. Normandy. Of these subnations none was more important or interesting than Normandy. The Northmen had been the scourge of those who lived near the North Sea for many years before one of their leaders, Rollo (or Hrolf), agreed, in 911, to accept from the West Frankish king a district on the coast, north of Brittany, where he and his followers might peacefully settle. Rollo assumed the title of Duke of the Normans and introduced the Christian religion among his people. The newcomers for a considerable time kept up their Scandinavian habits and language, but gradually appropriated such culture as their neighbors possessed, and by the twelfth century their capital, Rouen, was one of the most enlightened cities of Europe.

368. Battle of Hastings (1066). Just what William's claims to England were is not very clear, and it makes little difference. The main thing to know is that many ships were building in the Norman harbors in the spring and summer of 1066, and many adventurers readily flocked to William's standard when it became known that he proposed to invade England. The Normans and the English met on the field of Hastings. The English were led by Harold, the successor of Edward the Confessor, who made a brave stand, but was killed and his troops routed by the Norman cavalry and their excellent bowmen. William managed to induce a number of influential nobles and several bishops to accept him as king, now that Harold was dead. London opened its gates to him, and on Christmas Day, 1066, he was solemnly elected king by an assembly in Westminster Abbey, and duly crowned.

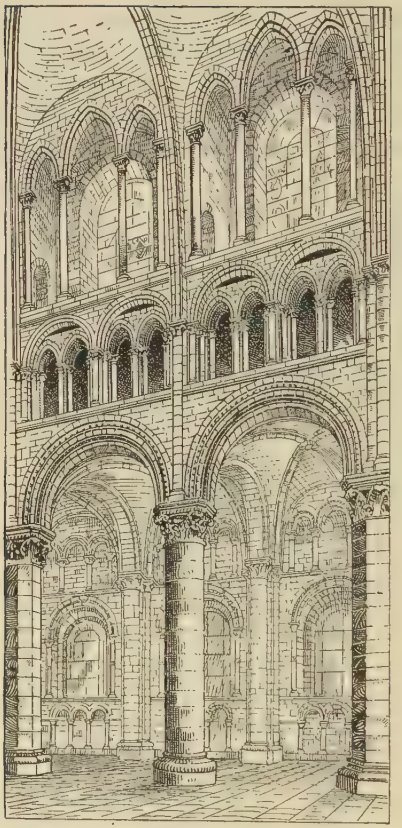
369. William's Policy in England. The English who had refused to join him before the battle of Hastings were declared to have forfeited their lands, but were permitted to keep them upon condition of receiving them back from the new king as his vassals. The lands of those who actually fought against him at Hastings, or in later rebellions, were seized and redistributed among his faithful followers, both Norman and English.

NORMAN GATEWAY AT BRISTOL, ENGLAND

This beautiful gateway was originally the entrance to a monastery, begun in 1142. It is one of the finest examples of the Norman style of building to be seen in England

William declared that he did not propose to change the English customs but to govern as Edward the Confessor had done. He maintained the Witenagemot, a council made up of bishops and nobles, whose advice the Saxon kings had sought in all important matters. He avoided giving to any one person a great many estates in a single region, so that no one should thus become inconveniently powerful. Finally, in order to secure the support of the smaller landholders and to prevent combinations against him among the greater ones, he required every landowner in England to take an oath of fidelity *directly* to him, instead of having only a few great landowners as vassals who had their own subvassals under their own control, as in France (§ 366).

370. General Results of the Norman Conquest. It is clear that the Norman Conquest was not a simple change of kings, but that a new element was added to the English people. We cannot tell how many Normans actually emigrated across the Channel,



CHOIR OF CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL

This was destroyed by fire four years after Thomas Becket was murdered there. It was soon rebuilt under Henry II. The lower rows of arches are the old round kind, while the upper row shows how the pointed arch was coming in. (See § 429)

but they evidently came in considerable numbers, and their influence upon the English habits and government was very great. A century after William's conquest the whole body of the nobility, the bishops, the abbots, and the government officials had become practically all Norman. Besides these, the architects who built the castles and fortresses, the cathedrals and abbeys, came from Normandy. Merchants from the Norman cities of Rouen and Caen settled in London and other English cities, and weavers from Flanders settled in various towns and even in the country.

For a time these newcomers remained a separate people, but by the year 1200 they had become for the most part indistinguishable from the great mass of English people among whom they had come.

They had nevertheless introduced among the inhabitants of England a new and important element which made the nation more energetic, active-minded, and varied in its occupations and interests than it had been before the Conquest.

THE PLANTAGENET POSSESSIONS IN ENGLAND AND FRANCE

II. Henry II and the Plantagenets

371. Henry II (1154–1189). After William's death there was a great deal of disorder for two generations, and when his great-grandson, Henry II, came to the throne in 1154 he found the kingdom in a melancholy condition. He had need of all his energy and quickness of mind to restore order in England and at the same time rule his wide realms in France, which he had either inherited or acquired by marriage with a French heiress.

In order to put an end to the constant feuds and fighting he reorganized the courts, and his judges made regular circuits to try cases. The grand jury was introduced to bring accusations against criminals and disturbers of the peace. But the method of trial by a jury of twelve men, so familiar to us now, does not seem to have been introduced until a century later. The decisions of Henry's judges were based on old English customs, not on the Roman law, and the foundations of the English *common law* were laid in this way.

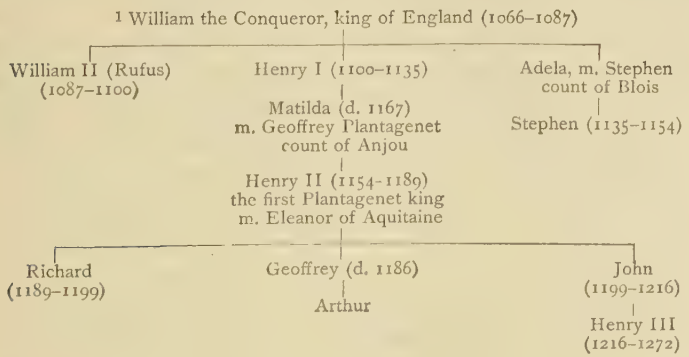
372. Henry II and Thomas Becket. Henry tried to reduce the powers of the Church courts, and in order to insure his control of the English clergy he had a friend of his, Thomas Becket, made archbishop of Canterbury. But Becket refused to forward the king's plans for reducing the clergy's influence, and after a great deal of misunderstanding Becket was finally murdered in his own cathedral by some of Henry's knights, who thought that they were doing the king a favor. Henry was filled with remorse, and had to make terms with the papal legates by promising to return to Canterbury all the property of the Church he had confiscated and by pledging himself to go on a crusade.

373. The French Possessions of the Plantagenets. Henry II spent a great part of his time across the Channel in his French possessions. A glance at the accompanying map will show that rather more than half of his realms lay to the south of the English Channel. He controlled more territory in France than the French king himself. As great-grandson of William the

Conqueror[1] he inherited the duchy of Normandy and the suzerainty over Brittany. His mother, Matilda, had married the count of Anjou and Maine, so that Henry II inherited these fiefs along with those which had belonged to William the Conqueror. Lastly, he had married Eleanor, heiress of the dukes of Guienne, and in this way doubled the extent of his French lands. Henry II and his successors are known as the "Plantagenets," owing to the habit that his father, the count of Anjou, had of wearing a bit of broom (Latin, *planta genista*) in his helmet.

So it came about that the French kings beheld a new State, under an able and energetic ruler, developing within their borders and including more than half the territory over which they were supposed to rule. A few years before Henry II died an ambitious monarch, Philip Augustus, ascended the French throne and made it the chief business of his life to get control of his feudal vassals—above all, the Plantagenets.

374. Richard the Lion-Hearted. So long as Henry II lived there was little chance of expelling the Plantagenets from France; but with the accession of his reckless son Richard the Lion-Hearted the prospects of the French king brightened wonderfully. Richard is one of the most famous of medieval knights, but he was a very poor ruler. He left his kingdom to take care


1 William the Conqueror, king of England (1066–1087)
William II (Rufus) (1087–1100)
Henry I (1100–1135)
Matilda (d. 1167) m. Geoffrey Plantagenet count of Anjou
Henry II (1154–1189) the first Plantagenet king m. Eleanor of Aquitaine
Adela, m. Stephen count of Blois
Stephen (1135–1154)
Richard (1189–1199)
Geoffrey (d. 1186)
Arthur
John (1199–1216)
Henry III (1216–1272)

of itself while he went upon a crusade to the Holy Land (§ 389). When Richard returned, after several years of romantic adventure, he found himself involved in a war with Philip Augustus, in the midst of which he died.

375. John loses the French Possessions of his House. Richard's younger brother John, who bears the reputation of being the most despicable of English kings, speedily gave Philip good excuses for seizing a great part of the Plantagenet lands. Philip Augustus, as John's suzerain, summoned him to appear at the French court to answer certain ugly charges of murder and violence. Upon John's refusal to appear or to do homage for his continental possessions, Philip caused his court to issue a decree confiscating almost all of the Plantagenet lands, leaving to the English king only the southwest corner of France (duchy of Guienne).

376. King John becomes a Vassal of the Pope. John became involved in a controversy with Pope Innocent III, one of the mightiest rulers of the Middle Ages, over the selection of an archbishop of Canterbury. In his anger he finally drove the monks of Canterbury out of the country.

Innocent replied by placing England under the *interdict*; that is to say, he ordered the clergy to close all the churches and suspend all public services—a very terrible thing to the people of the time. John was excommunicated, and the Pope threatened that unless the king submitted to his wishes he would depose him and give his crown to Philip Augustus of France. As Philip made haste to collect an army for the conquest of England, John humbly submitted to the Pope in 1213. He went so far as to hand England over to Innocent III and receive it back as a fief, thus becoming the vassal of the Pope. He agreed also to send a yearly tribute to Rome.

377. Granting of the Great Charter (1215). The most permanently important event of John's reign was the granting of the Great Charter. When John proposed to lead a new army to France, his vassals refused to go, on the ground that they were not pledged to fight for him outside of England. Finally, a number

of the barons banded together to force the king to sign a document stating plainly those things which according to old English custom a king might not legally do. The insurgent nobles met the king at Runnymede, not far from London. Here on the 15th of June, 1215, they forced him to swear to observe what they believed to be the rights of his subjects, which they had carefully written out.

378. Provisions of the Charter. The Great Charter is perhaps the most famous document in the history of government. The king promises to observe the rights of his vassals, and the vassals in turn agree to observe the rights of their vassals. The towns are not to be oppressed. The merchant is not to be deprived of his goods for small offenses, nor the farmer of his wagon and implements. The king is to impose no tax, besides the three feudal aids,[1] except with the consent of the Great Council of the nation. This was to include the prelates and greater barons and all the king's vassals.

There is no more notable clause in the Charter than that which provides that no *freeman* is to be arrested, or imprisoned, or deprived of his property, unless he be immediately sent before a court of his peers for trial. To realize the importance of this we must recollect that in France, down to 1789,—nearly six hundred years later,—the king exercised such unlimited powers that he could order the arrest of anyone he pleased and could imprison him for any length of time without bringing him to trial or even informing him of the nature of his offense.

379. Permanent Importance of the Great Charter. It must be remembered, however, that the barons, who forced the Charter on the king, had their own interests especially in mind. The nobles, churchmen, merchants, and other freemen made up only about a sixth of the population, and the Charter had little or nothing to say of serfs or villains (§ 405), who formed the great mass of the English people at that time. They could still be victimized

[1] These three regular feudal dues were payments made when the lord knighted his eldest son, gave his eldest daughter in marriage, or had been captured and was waiting to be ransomed.

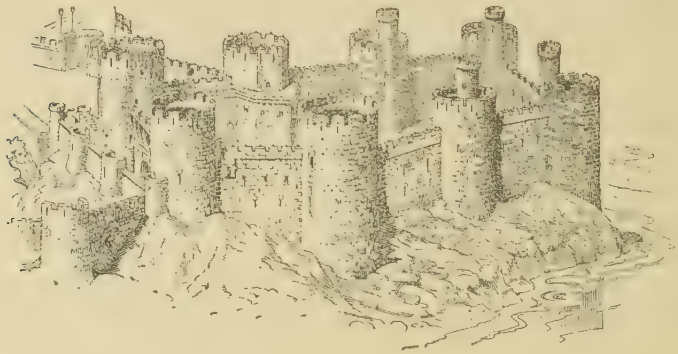
as before by their masters, the lords of the manor. But in later centuries, when the serfs had become free, the Charter could be appealed to in support of the people in general against attempts of the ruler to oppress them. There were times when the English kings evaded its provisions and tried to rule as absolute monarchs. But the people always sooner or later bethought them of the Charter, which thus continued to form a barrier against permanent despotism in England.

QUESTIONS

I. Review briefly the settlement of England before the Norman Conquest (§§ 321, 322, 365). Describe the development of Normandy. What policy did William adopt in governing England? What are some of the results of the Norman Conquest?

II. What improvements in the administration of the law were introduced by Henry II? How did the English rulers come to have possessions in France? What was the extent of their territory during the time of Henry II? How was this territory regained by France? Review the struggle of King John with the Pope. What were the circumstances leading to the signing of the Great Charter? State some of its important provisions.

NOTE. Edward I built Conway Castle in 1284 to keep the Welsh in check. Its walls are from twelve to fifteen feet thick.



CHAPTER XIX

THE CRUSADES: HERESY AND THE MENDICANT ORDERS

I. The First Crusade

380. Fascination of the Crusades. Of all the events of the Middle Ages the most romantic are the Crusades, the adventurous expeditions to Palestine, undertaken with the hope of reclaiming the Holy Land from the infidel Turks. All through the twelfth and thirteenth centuries each generation beheld at least one great army of crusaders gathering from every part of the West and starting toward the Orient. Each year witnessed the departure of small bands of pilgrims or of solitary soldiers of the cross.

For two hundred years there was a continuous stream of Europeans of every rank and station,—kings and princes, powerful nobles, simple knights, common soldiers, monks, townspeople, and even peasants,—from England, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy, making their way into Western Asia.

381. The Holy Land conquered first by the Arabs and then by the Turks. Syria had been overrun by the Arabs shortly after the death of Mohammed, and the Holy City of Jerusalem had fallen into the hands of the infidels. The Arab, however, shared with the Christian the veneration for the places associated with the life of Christ and, in general, permitted the Christian pilgrims to worship unmolested. But with the coming of a new and ruder people, the Seljuk Turks, in the eleventh century, the pilgrims began to bring home news of great hardships. Moreover, the Eastern emperor was defeated by the Turks in 1071 and lost Asia Minor. Finding himself unequal to the task of repelling the Turks, the Eastern emperor Alexius appealed to the Pope, Urban II, for aid.

382. Urban II issues a Call to the First Crusade (1095). The Pope responded, and at a Church council held at Clermont in France (1095) he summoned princes, knights, and soldiers of all ranks to give up their usual wicked business of fighting their Christian brethren in the constant neighborhood warfare (§ 342) and to turn instead to the aid of their fellow Christians in the East. He warned them that the cruel Turks would, if unchecked, extend their sway still more widely over the faithful servants of the Lord.

The proposed campaign appealed to many different kinds of men. The devout, the romantic, and the adventurous were by no means the only classes that were attracted. Syria held out inducements to the discontented noble who might hope to gain a principality in the East, to the merchant who was looking for new enterprises, to the merely restless who wished to avoid his responsibilities at home, and even to the criminal who enlisted with a view of escaping the punishment for his past offenses. The faithful crusader, like the faithful Mohammedan, was assured of immediate entrance to heaven if he died repentant for his sins.

383. Peter the Hermit and his Crusading Army. A few months after Urban issued his summons a motley army of peasants, workingmen, vagabonds, and even women and children had been collected under the leadership of Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless. These simple folk were confident that the Lord would protect them during their two-thousand-mile journey to the Holy Land and grant them a prompt victory over the infidel. But, as might have been expected, a great part fell by the way, and the rest were slaughtered or scattered by the Turks when the disorderly horde reached Asia Minor.

384. The First Crusade (1096). The most conspicuous figures of the long period of the Crusades are not, however, to be found among the lowly followers of Peter the Hermit, but are the knights, in their long coats of flexible armor. A year after the summons issued at Clermont great armies of fighting men had been collected in the West under distinguished leaders—the Pope speaks of three hundred thousand soldiers. Among the crusading

knights who played a most important rôle were Count Raymond of Toulouse, Godfrey of Bouillon, and his brother Baldwin.

The Eastern emperor had hoped to use his Western allies to reconquer Asia Minor and force back the Turks. The leading knights, on the contrary, dreamed of carving out principalities for themselves in the former dominions of the emperor and proposed to control them by right of conquest. Baldwin got possession of Edessa, of which he made himself prince. The march on Jerusalem was postponed, and a year was spent in capturing the rich and important city of Antioch. Then Raymond of Toulouse set to work and conquered a principality for himself on the coast about Tripoli.

MAP OF THE CRUSADERS' STATES IN SYRIA

385. Conquest of Jerusalem. In the spring of 1099 about twenty thousand warriors were at last able to move upon Jerusalem. They found the city well walled, in the midst of a desolate region where neither food nor water nor the materials to construct the siege apparatus necessary for the capture of the Holy City were to be found. In spite of all the difficulties the place was taken in a couple of months. The crusaders showed no mercy to the people of the city, but with shocking barbarity

cruelly massacred the inhabitants. Godfrey of Bouillon was chosen ruler of Jerusalem. He soon died and was succeeded by his brother Baldwin.

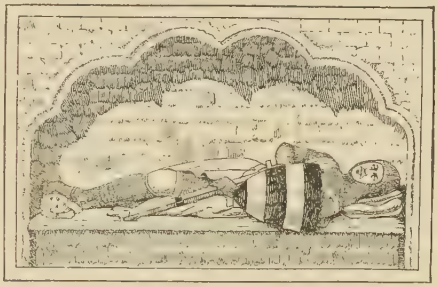
386. Founding of Latin Kingdoms in Syria. It will be observed that the "Franks," as the Mohammedans called all the Western folk, had established the centers of four principalities. These were Edessa, Antioch, the region about Tripoli conquered by Raymond, and the kingdom of Jerusalem. The news of these Christian victories quickly reached the West, and in 1101 tens of thousands of new crusaders started eastward. Most of them were lost in passing through Asia Minor, and few reached their destination. The original conquerors were consequently left to hold the land against the Mohammedans and to organize their conquests as best they could. This was a very difficult task—too difficult to accomplish under the circumstances, since the greater part of those who visited Palestine returned home after fulfilling the vow they had made to kneel at the Holy Sepulcher.

387. Military Religious Orders. A noteworthy outcome of the crusading movement was the foundation of several curious orders, of which the Hospitalers and the Templars (so called from the quarters assigned them in the king's palace at Jerusalem, on the site of the former temple of Solomon) were the most important. These orders combined the two great interests of the time, those of the monk and of the soldier. They permitted a man to be both at once; the knight might wear a monkish cowl over his coat of armor.

The Hospitalers was a charitable association which cared for the poor and the sick. The Templars became rich and powerful, for they were able to collect vast funds and the popes showered privileges on them. No wonder they grew insolent and aroused the jealousy and hate of princes and prelates alike. Early in the fourteenth century, through the combined efforts of the Pope and the king of France, the order was brought to a terrible end. Its members were accused of the most abominable practices,—such as the worship of idols and the systematic insulting of Christ and his religion. Many distinguished Templars were burned for heresy; others perished miserably in dungeons.

II. The Second and Later Crusades; Results

388. The Second Crusade. Fifty years after the preaching of the First Crusade the fall of Edessa (1144), an important outpost of the Christians in the East, led to a second expedition. This was forwarded by the great theologian St. Bernard, who went about using his unrivaled eloquence to induce volunteers to join the Crusade. The king of France readily consented to take the cross, but the emperor, Conrad III, appears to have yielded only after St. Bernard had preached before him and given a vivid picture of the terrors to be revealed on the Judgment Day.



Tomb of a Crusader

The churches of England, France, and Germany contain numerous figures in stone and brass of crusading knights, reposing in full armor with shield and sword on their tombs

St. Bernard himself, the chief promoter of the expedition, gives a most unflattering description of the "soldiers of Christ." "In that countless multitude you will find few except the utterly wicked and impious, the sacrilegious, homicides, and perjurers, whose departure is a double gain. Europe rejoices to lose them and Palestine to gain them; they are useful in both ways, in their absence from here and their presence there." It is unnecessary to describe the movements and fate of these crusaders; suffice it to say that, from a military standpoint, the so-called Second Crusade was a miserable failure.

389. The Third Crusade. In the year 1187, forty years later, Jerusalem was recaptured by Saladin, the most heroic and distinguished of all the Mohammedan rulers of that period. The loss of the Holy City led to the most famous of all the military expeditions to the Holy Land, in which Emperor Frederick Barbarossa (§ 356), Richard the Lion-Hearted of England (§ 374), and his

political rival, Philip Augustus of France, all took part. The accounts of this Third Crusade show that while the several Christian leaders hated one another heartily enough, the Christians and Mohammedans—or Saracens, as they were often called—were coming to respect one another. We find examples of the most polite relations between the representatives of the opposing religions. In 1192 Richard concluded a truce with Saladin, by the terms of which the Christian pilgrims were allowed to visit the holy places in safety and comfort.

390. The Fourth and Subsequent Crusades. In the thirteenth century the crusaders began to direct their expeditions toward Egypt as a center of the Mohammedan power. The first of these was diverted in an extraordinary manner by the Venetian merchants, who induced the crusaders to conquer Constantinople for their benefit. The further expeditions, in which Jerusalem was recaptured for a short time, need not be described, for it was irrevocably lost in 1244. Although the possibility of recovering the Holy City was long considered, the Crusades may be said to have come to an end before the close of the thirteenth century.

391. Settlements of the Italian Merchants. For one class, at least, the Holy Land had great and permanent charms; namely, the Italian merchants, especially those from Genoa, Venice, and Pisa. It was through their early interest and by means of supplies from their ships that the conquest of the Holy Land had been rendered possible. The merchants always made sure that they were well paid for their services. When they aided in the successful siege of a town they arranged that a definite quarter should be assigned to them in the captured place, where they might settle and have their church, market, docks, and all that was necessary for a permanent center for their commerce.

392. Oriental Luxury introduced into Europe. This new commerce had a most important influence in bringing the West into permanent relations with the Orient. Eastern products from India and elsewhere—silks, spices, camphor, musk, pearls, and ivory—were brought by the Mohammedans from the East to the commercial towns of Palestine and Syria; then, through the

Italian merchants, they found their way into France and Germany, suggesting ideas of luxury hitherto scarcely dreamed of by the still half-barbarous Franks.

393. Effects of the Crusades on Warfare. Moreover, the Crusades had a great effect upon the methods of warfare, for the soldiers from the West learned from the Greeks about the old Roman methods of constructing machines for attacking castles and walled towns. This led to the construction in western Europe of stone castles, first with square towers and later with round ones, the remains of which are so common in Germany, France, and England. The Crusades also produced heraldry, or the rules for the use of "coats of arms." These were the badges that single knights or groups of knights adopted in order to distinguish themselves from other people.

394. Other Results of the Crusades. Some of the results of the Crusades upon western Europe must already be obvious, even from this very brief account. Thousands and thousands of Frenchmen, Germans, and Englishmen had traveled to the Orient by land and by sea. Most of them came from hamlets or castles where they could never have learned much of the great world beyond the confines of their native village or province. They suddenly found themselves in great cities and in the midst of unfamiliar peoples and customs. This could not fail to make them think and give them new ideas to carry home. The Crusade took the place of a liberal education. The crusaders came in contact with those who knew more than they did,—above all, the Arabs,[1]—and brought back with them new notions of comfort and luxury.

III. The Heretics and the Friars

395. Rise of Heresy. During the period of the Crusades the Church faced a new danger at home. Leaders began to arise who attacked its institutions and beliefs and strove to induce men to join them in their revolt. Those who questioned the teachings of

1 The western Europeans derived many important ideas from the Mohammedans in Spain, as *Arabic* numerals, alchemy, algebra, and the use of paper.

the Church and cast off its authority were regarded as guilty of heresy, which was the supreme crime in the Middle Ages.

It is very difficult for us who live in a time of religious toleration to understand the universal and deep-rooted horror of heresy which long prevailed in Europe. But we must recollect that to the orthodox believer in the Church nothing could exceed the guilt of one who committed treason against God by rejecting the religion which had been handed down in the Roman Church from the immediate followers of his Son. Moreover, doubt and unbelief were not merely sin; they were revolt against the most powerful social institution of the time, which continued to be venerated by people at large throughout western Europe.

396. The Waldensians. Among those who continued to accept the Christian faith but refused to obey the clergy the most important sect was that of the Waldensians, which took its rise about 1175. These were followers of Peter Waldo of Lyons, who gave up all their property and lived a life of apostolic poverty. They went about preaching the gospel and explaining the Scriptures, which they translated from Latin into the language of the people.

397. The Albigensians. On the other hand, there were popular leaders who taught that the Christian religion itself was false. They held that there were two principles in the universe, the good and the evil, which were forever fighting for the victory. They asserted that the Jehovah of the Old Testament was really the evil power, and that it was, therefore, the evil power whom the Catholic Church worshiped. These heretics were often called Albigensians, a name derived from the town of Albi in southern France, where they were very numerous.

398. The Albigensian Crusade (1208). In southern France there were many adherents of both the Albigensians and the Waldensians, especially in the county of Toulouse. Against the people of this flourishing land Pope Innocent III preached a crusade in 1208. An army marched from northern France into the doomed region and, after a bloody war, suppressed the heresy by wholesale slaughter. At the same time the war checked the

development of a promising civilization and destroyed the peaceful prosperity of the most enlightened portion of France (see below, § 438).

399. The Inquisition. The most permanent defense of the Church against heresy was the establishment, under the headship of the Pope, of a system of courts designed to ferret out secret cases of unbelief and bring the offenders to punishment. These courts, which devoted their whole attention to the discovery and conviction of heretics, were called the Holy Inquisition, which gradually took form after the Albigensian crusade. Those suspected of heresy were often subjected to long imprisonment or torture, inflicted with the hope of forcing them to confess their crime or to implicate others.

Without by any means attempting to defend the methods employed, it may be remarked that the inquisitors were often earnest and upright men, and the methods of procedure of the Inquisition were not more cruel than those used in the other courts of the period.

If the suspected person confessed his guilt and abjured his heresy he was forgiven and received back into the Church; but a penance was imposed upon him—sometimes even imprisonment for life—as a means of wiping away the unspeakable sin of which he had been guilty. If he persisted in his heresy he was "relaxed to the secular arm"; that is to say, the Church, whose law forbade it to shed blood, handed over the convicted person to the civil power, which burned him alive without further trial.

400. Founding of the Mendicant Orders. We may now turn to that far more cheerful and effective method of meeting the opponents of the Church which may be said to have been discovered by St. Francis of Assisi. His teachings and the example of his beautiful life probably did far more to secure continued allegiance to the Church than all the harsh devices of the Inquisition. St. Francis and St. Dominic strove to meet the needs of their time by inventing a new kind of clergyman, the begging brother, or "mendicant friar" (from the Latin *frater*, "brother"). He was to do just what the bishops and parish priests often

failed to do; namely, lead a holy life of self-sacrifice, defend the Church's beliefs against the attacks of the heretics, and awaken the people to a new religious life. The founding of the mendicant orders is one of the most interesting events of the Middle Ages.

401. St. Francis of Assisi (1182–1226) and his Order. There is no more lovely and fascinating figure in all history than St. Francis. He was born (probably in 1182) at Assisi, a little town in central Italy. He was the son of a well-to-do merchant and led a gay life during his youth. But after a serious illness at the age of twenty he lost his love for his former pleasures and began to consort with beggars, especially lepers. He soon began to preach in his simple way. Others joined him, and they went barefoot and penniless about central Italy trying to arouse interest in religion.

Pope Innocent III, although at first suspicious of these ragged brethren, decided to approve the enterprise (1210).

402. Missionary Work of the Franciscans. Seven years later, when Francis's followers had greatly increased in numbers, missionary work was begun on a large scale, and brethren were dispatched to Germany, Hungary, France, Spain, and even to Syria. It was not long before an English chronicler was telling with wonder of the arrival in his country of these barefoot men, in their patched gowns and with ropes about their waists, who, with Christian faith, took no thought for the morrow, believing that their Heavenly Father knew what things they had need of. Francis never wished his followers to become a rich order, but people were ready to found monasteries for them, and after their founder's death the order tended to degenerate as other monkish associations had done.

403. The Founding of the Dominican Order. St. Dominic (b. 1170), the Spanish founder of the other great mendicant order, was not a simple layman like Francis. He was a churchman and had had a long course in theology in a university. He was much afflicted by the prevalence of heresy and decided to devote his life to combating it. Dominic induced Innocent III to approve his undertaking and sent forth his followers as Francis

had done. By 1221 the Dominican order was thoroughly organized and had sixty monasteries scattered over western Europe.

The Dominicans were called the "Preaching Friars" and were carefully trained in theology in order the better to refute the arguments of the heretics. The Pope delegated to them especially the task of conducting the Inquisition. They early began to extend their influence over the universities, and the two most distinguished theologians and teachers of the thirteenth century, Albertus Magnus and Thomas Aquinas, were Dominicans.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the Holy Land happen to be in the possession of infidels? What circumstances led to the Crusades? What classes of persons responded to the call? Describe the character and fate of Peter the Hermit's army. Give an account of the First Crusade. What were the military results? What religious orders grew up during this expedition?

II. What was the outcome of the later Crusades? What was the effect of the Crusades on commerce? on warfare? on general thought?

III. What was "heresy"? What were the views of the Waldensians? Give an account of the Albigensians and the crusade against them. Describe the Holy Inquisition. What were the mendicant orders? How did they differ from the monks with whom we are acquainted? Contrast the Franciscans and Dominicans. Give an account of St. Francis. Can you trace any effects of these orders on the thought of the Middle Ages?

BOOK V. CIVILIZATION OF THE MIDDLE AGES

CHAPTER XX

MEDIEVAL LIFE IN COUNTRY AND TOWN

I. The Serfs and the Manor

404. Unimportance of Town Life in the Early Middle Ages. There was little town life in western Europe before the twelfth century. The Roman towns were decreasing in population before the German inroads. The confusion which followed the invasions hastened their decline, and a great number of them disappeared altogether. Those which survived and such new towns as sprang up were of very little importance during the early Middle Ages. We may assume, therefore, that during the long period from Theodoric to the opening of the Crusades by far the greater part of the population of England, Germany, and northern and central France were living in the country, on the great estates belonging to the feudal lords, abbots, and bishops.[1]

405. The Vill, or Manor. Obviously the owner of the castle had to obtain supplies to support his family and servants and armed men. He could not have done this had he not possessed extensive tracts of land. A great part of western Europe in the time of Charlemagne appears, as we have seen, to have been divided into great estates or plantations.

These medieval estates were called *vills*, or *manors*, and closely resembled the Roman villas which had existed in former centuries. The peasants who tilled the soil were called *villains*, a word derived

[1] In Italy and southern France town life was doubtless more general.

from *vill.* A portion of the estate was reserved by the lord for his own use; the rest of the plowed land was divided among the peasants, usually in long strips, of which each peasant had several scattered about the manor.

406. Condition of the Serfs. The peasants were generally serfs, who did not own their fields, but could not, on the other hand, be deprived of them so long as they worked for the lord and paid him certain dues. They were bound to the land and went with it when it changed hands. The serfs were required to till those fields which the lord reserved for himself and to gather in his crops. They might not marry without their lord's permission. Their wives and daughters helped with the indoor work of the manor house. In the women's buildings the women serfs engaged in spinning, weaving, sewing, baking, and brewing, thus producing clothes, food, and drink for the whole community.

We get our clearest ideas of the position of the serfs from the ancient descriptions of manors, which give an exact account of what each member of a particular community owed to the lord. For example, we find that the abbot of Peterborough held a manor upon which Hugh Miller and seventeen other serfs, mentioned by name, were required to work for him three days in each week during the whole year, except one week at Christmas, one at Easter, and one at Whitsuntide. Each serf was to give the lord abbot one bushel of wheat and eighteen sheaves of oats, three hens, and one cock yearly, and five eggs at Easter. If he sold his horse for more than ten shillings, he was to give the said abbot fourpence.

407. Slight Use of Money. One of the most remarkable characteristics of the manor was its independence of the rest of the world. It produced nearly everything that its members needed and might almost have continued to exist indefinitely without communication with those who lived beyond its bounds. Little or no money was necessary, for the peasants paid what was due to the lord in the form of labor and farm products. They also gave one another the necessary help and found little occasion for buying and selling.

There was almost no opportunity to better their condition, and life must have gone on for generation after generation in a weary routine. Their existence was not merely monotonous, it was wretched. The food was coarse and there was little variety, as the peasants did not even take pains to raise fresh vegetables. The houses usually had but one room, which was poorly lighted by a single little window and had no chimney.

408. Barter replaced by Money Transactions; Decline of Serfdom. The increased use of money in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which came with the awakening trade and industry, tended to break up the manor. The habit of trading one thing for another without the employment of money began to disappear. As time went on, neither the lord nor the serf was satisfied with the old system, which had answered well enough in the time of Charlemagne. The serfs, on the one hand, began to obtain money by the sale of their products in the markets of neighboring towns. They soon found it more profitable to pay the lord a certain sum instead of working for him, for they could then turn their whole attention to their own farms.

The landlords, on the other hand, found it to their advantage to accept money in place of the services of their tenants. With this money the landlord could hire laborers to cultivate his fields and could buy the luxuries which were brought to his notice as commerce increased. So it came about that the lords gradually gave up their control over the peasants. A serf might also gain his liberty by running away from his manor to a town. If he remained undiscovered, or was unclaimed by his lord for a year and a day, he became a freeman.[1]

[1] The slow extinction of serfdom in western Europe appears to have begun as early as the twelfth century. A very general emancipation had taken place in France by the end of the thirteenth century (and in England somewhat later), though there were still some serfs in France when the Revolution came in 1789. Germany was far more backward in this respect. We find the peasants revolting against their hard lot in Luther's time, and it was not until the nineteenth century that the serfs were freed in Prussia.

II. The Towns and Guilds

409. Importance of Town Life. It is hardly necessary to point out that the gradual reappearance of town life in western Europe is of the greatest interest to the student of history. The

A Castle with a Village below it

A village was pretty sure to grow up near the castle of a powerful lord and might gradually become a large town

cities had been the centers of Greek and Roman civilization, and in our own time they dominate the life, culture, and business enterprise of the world. Were they to disappear, our whole life, even in the country, would necessarily undergo a profound change and tend to become primitive again like that of the age of Charlemagne.

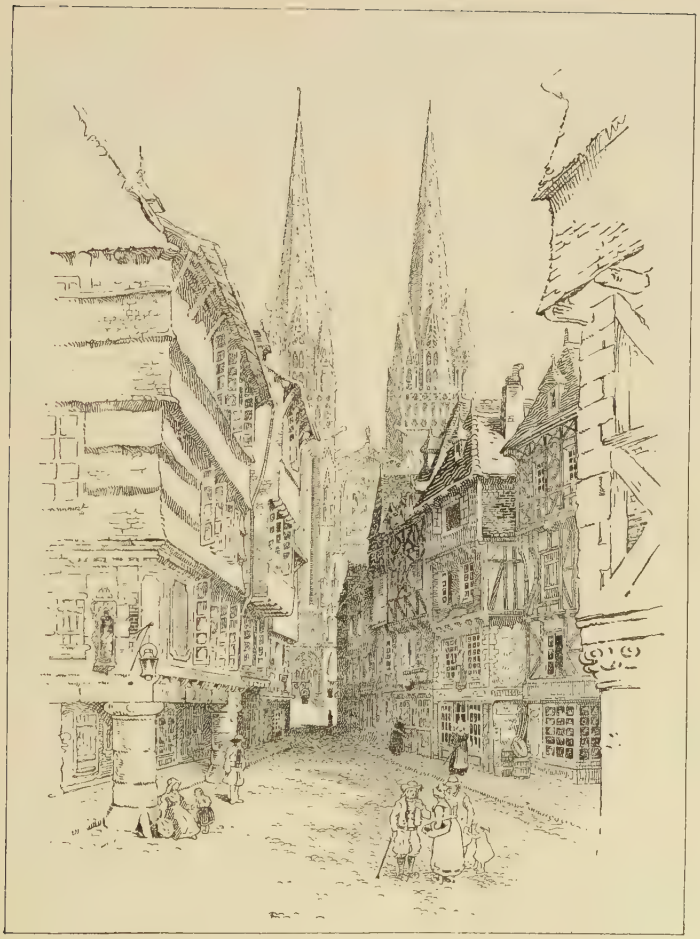
410. Origin of the Medieval Towns. A great part of the medieval towns appear to have originated on the manors of feudal lords or about a monastery or castle. The French name for towns,

ville, is derived from "vill," the manor or *villa*, and we use this old Roman word when we call a town Jackson*ville* or Harris*ville*. The need of protection was probably the usual reason for establishing a town with walls about it, so that the townspeople and the neighboring country people might find safety within it when attacked by neighboring feudal lords.

411. Compactness of a Medieval Town. The way in which a medieval town was built seems to justify this conclusion. It was generally crowded and compact compared with its more luxurious Roman predecessors. Aside from the market place there were few or no open spaces. There were no amphitheaters or public baths as in the Roman cities. The streets were often mere alleys, over which the jutting stories of the high houses almost met. The high, thick wall that surrounded it prevented its extending easily and rapidly as our cities do nowadays.

412. Townsmen originally Serfs. All towns outside of Italy were small in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and, like the manors on which they had grown up, they had little commerce as yet with the outside world. They produced almost all that their inhabitants needed except the farm products which came from the neighboring country. There was likely to be little expansion as long as the town remained under the absolute control of the lord or monastery upon whose land it was situated. The townspeople were scarcely more than serfs, in spite of the fact that they lived within a wall and were traders and artisans instead of farmers. They had to pay irritating dues to their lord, just as if they still formed a farming community.

With the increase of trade (§§ 414–418) came the longing for greater freedom. For when new and attractive commodities began to be brought from the East and the South, the people of the towns were encouraged to make things which they could exchange at some neighboring fair for the products of distant lands. But no sooner did the townsmen begin to engage in manufacturing and to enter into relations with the outside world than they became aware that they were subject to exactions and restrictions which rendered progress impossible.



STREET IN QUIMPER, FRANCE

None of the streets in even the oldest European towns look just as they did in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, but here and there, as in this town of Brittany, one can still get some idea of the narrow, cramped streets and overhanging houses and the beautiful cathedral crowded in among them

Consequently, during the twelfth century there were many insurrections of the towns against their lords, and there was a general demand that the lords should grant the townsmen *charters* in which the rights of both parties should be definitely stated. These charters were written contracts between the lord and the town government.

413. The Guilds. The tradesmen in the medieval towns were at once manufacturers and merchants; that is, they made, as well as offered for sale, the articles which they kept in their shops. Those who belonged to a particular trade—the bakers, the butchers, the sword-makers, the armorers, etc.—formed unions or guilds to protect their special interests. The oldest statutes of a guild in Paris are those of the candle-makers, which go back to 1061. The number of trades differed greatly in different towns, but the guilds all had the same object—to prevent anyone from practicing a trade who had not been duly admitted to the union.

A young man had to spend several years in learning his trade. During this time he lived in the house of a "master workman" as an "apprentice," but received no remuneration. He then became a "journeyman" and could earn wages, although he was still allowed to work only for master workmen and not directly for the public. A simple trade might be learned in three years, but to become a goldsmith one must be an apprentice for ten years. The number of apprentices that a master workman might employ was strictly limited, in order that the journeymen might not become too numerous.

The way in which each trade was to be practiced was carefully regulated, as well as the time that should be spent in work each day. The system of guilds discouraged enterprise but maintained uniform standards everywhere. Had it not been for these unions the defenseless, isolated workmen, serfs as they had formerly been, would have found it impossible to secure freedom and municipal independence from the feudal lords who had formerly been their masters.

III. Business in the Later Middle Ages

414. Revival of Business. The chief reason for the growth of the towns and their increasing prosperity was a great development of trade throughout western Europe. Commerce had pretty much disappeared with the decline of the Roman roads and the general disorganization produced by the barbarian invasions. In the early Middle Ages there were no officials whose business it was to keep up the ancient Roman thoroughfares. The great network of highways from Persia to Britain fell apart when independent nobles or small isolated communities took the place of a world empire. All trade languished, for there was little demand for articles of luxury and there was but little money to buy what we should consider the comforts of life; even the nobility lived uncomfortably enough in their dreary and rudely furnished castles.

415. Italian Cities trade with the Orient. In Italy, however, trade does not seem to have altogether ceased. Venice, Genoa, Amalfi, and other towns appear to have developed a considerable Mediterranean commerce even before the Crusades. The Italian cities established trading stations in the East and carried on a direct traffic with the caravans which brought to the shores of the Mediterranean the products of Arabia, Persia, India, and the Spice Islands.

416. Commerce stimulates Industry. So long as the manor system prevailed and each man was occupied in producing only what he and the other people on the estate needed, there was nothing to send abroad and nothing to exchange for luxuries. But when merchants began to come with tempting articles, the members of a community were encouraged to produce a surplus of goods above what they themselves needed and to sell or exchange this surplus for commodities coming from a distance. Merchants and artisans gradually directed their energies toward the production of what others wished as well as what was needed by the little group to which they belonged.

417. The Luxuries of the East introduced into Europe. The people of Europe were astonished and delighted by the

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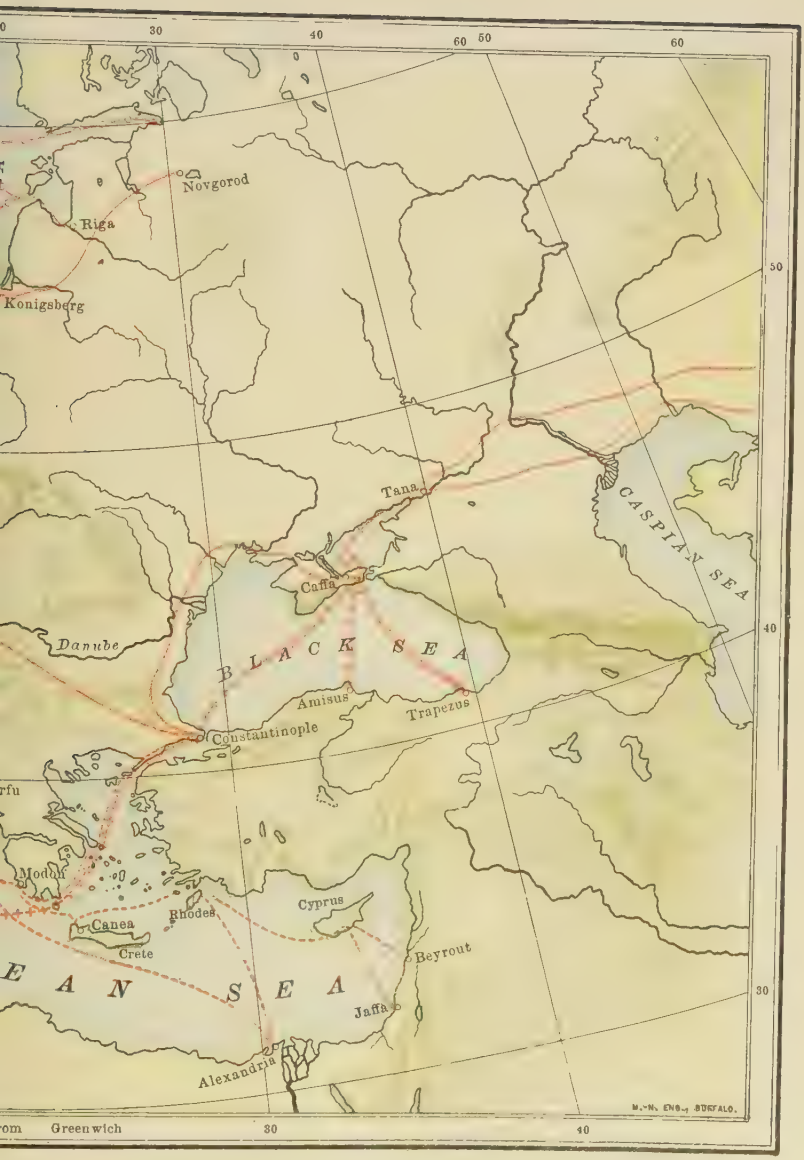
0
10
Longitude
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
To Iceland
Bergen
Stockholm
Bristol
Southampton
London
Bruges
Antwerp
Ghent
Boulogne
Hamburg
Bremen
Lubeck
Brunswick
Stralsund
Stettin
Magdeburg
Leipzig
Cologne
Mayence
Nuremberg
Munich
Augsburg
Basle
Strasburg
Paris
Seine
Orleans
Tours
Rhine
Rhone
Chalons
Lyons
Bordeaux
Narbonne
Barcelona
Lisbon
Cordova
Granada
Marseilles
Genoa
Milan
Verona
Venice
Bologna
Pisa
Florence
Rome
Naples
Amalfi
Messina
Syracuse
Tunis
Breuner Pass
Venetian Galleys in the 14th Century
COMMERCIAL TOWNS
AND TRADE ROUTES
of the 13th and 14th Centuries
Land Routes
Water Routes
Venetian
Genoese
Hanse
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Scale of Miles


30
40
60
50
60
Novgorod
Riga
Konigsberg
50
Tana
CASPIAN SEA
Caffa
Danube
BLACK SEA
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Amisus
Trapezus
Constantinople
rfu
Modon
Cyprus
Rhodes
Canea
Crete
Beyrout
E A N S E A
Jaffa
30
Alexandria
M.-N. ENG., BUFFALO.
rom Greenwich
30
40

luxuries of the East—the rich fabrics, oriental carpets, precious stones, perfumes, drugs, silks, and porcelains from China, spices from India, and cotton from Egypt. Venice introduced the silk industry from the East and the manufacture of those glass articles which the traveler may still buy in the Venetian shops. The West learned how to make silk and velvet as well as light and gauzy cotton and linen fabrics.

418. Important Commercial Centers. The Northern merchants dealt mainly with Venice and brought their wares across the Brenner Pass and down the Rhine, or sent them by sea to be exchanged in Flanders (see map). By the thirteenth century important centers of trade had come into being, some of which are still among the great commercial towns of the world. Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen carried on active trade with the countries on the Baltic and with England. Bruges and Ghent sent their manufactures everywhere. English commerce, however, was relatively unimportant as yet.

419. Obstacles to Business. For various reasons it was very hard to carry on business on a large scale in the Middle Ages. In the first place, as has been said, there was little money, and money greatly encourages buying and selling.

Moreover, it was universally believed that everything had a "just" price, which was merely enough to cover the cost of the materials used in its manufacture and to remunerate the maker for the work he had put into it. It was considered outrageous to ask more than the just price, no matter how anxious the purchaser might be to obtain the article.

Every manufacturer was required to keep a shop in which he offered at retail all that he made. Those who lived near a town were permitted to sell their products in the market place within the walls on condition that they sold directly to the consumers. They might not dispose of their whole stock to one dealer, for fear that if he had all there was of a commodity he might raise the price above the just one. These ideas made all wholesale trade very difficult.

420. Payment of Interest on Money Forbidden. Akin to these prejudices against wholesale business was that against taking

interest. Money was believed to be a dead and sterile thing, and no one had a right to demand any return for lending it. Interest was considered wicked, since it was exacted by those who took advantage of the embarrassments of others. "Usury," as the taking of even the most moderate and reasonable rate of interest was then called, was strenuously forbidden by the laws of the Church. So money-lending, which is necessary to all great commercial and industrial undertakings, was left to the Jews, who were not required to obey the rules established by the Christian Church for its own members.

421. The Jews as Money-Lenders. This ill-starred people played a most important part in the economic development of Europe, but they were terribly maltreated by the Christians, who held them guilty of the supreme crime of putting Christ to death. The active persecution of the Jews did not, however, become common before the thirteenth century, when they first began to be required to wear a peculiar cap, or badge, which made them easily recognized and exposed them to constant insult. Later they were sometimes required to live in a certain quarter of the city, called the Jewry or Ghetto. As they were excluded from the guilds, they not unnaturally turned to the business of money-lending, which no Christian might practice. Undoubtedly this occupation had much to do with causing their unpopularity. The kings permitted them to make loans, often at a most exorbitant rate; Philip Augustus allowed them to exact 46 per cent, but reserved the right to extort their gains from them when the royal treasury was empty. In England the usual rate was a penny a pound for each week.

422. Tolls and Other Annoyances. Another serious disadvantage which the medieval merchant had to face was the payment of an infinite number of tolls and duties which were demanded by the lords through whose domains his road passed. Not only were duties exacted on the highways, bridges, and at the fords, but those barons who were so fortunate as to have castles on a navigable river blocked the stream in such a way that the merchant could not bring his vessel through without a payment for the privilege.

423. Pirates. Commerce by sea had its own particular trials, by no means confined to the hazards of wind and wave, rock and shoal, for pirates were numerous in the North Sea. They were often organized and sometimes led by men of high rank, who appear to have regarded the business as no disgrace. The coasts were dangerous and lighthouses and beacons were few.

424. The Hanseatic League. With a view of reducing these manifold perils, the towns early began to form unions for mutual defense. The most famous of these was that of the German cities, called the Hanseatic League (from *hansa,* meaning "confederation" or "union"). Lübeck was always the leader, but among the seventy towns which at one time and another were included in the confederation we find Cologne, Brunswick, Danzig, and other centers of great importance. The union purchased and controlled settlements in London,—the so-called Steelyard near London Bridge,—at Wisby, Bergen, and far-off Novgorod in Russia. They managed to monopolize nearly the whole trade on the Baltic and North Seas, either through treaties or the influence that they were able to bring to bear (see map, p. 254).

The League made war on the pirates and did much to reduce the dangers of traffic. Instead of dispatching separate and defenseless merchantmen, their ships sailed out in fleets under the protection of a man-of-war.

425. Trade carried on by Towns, not by Nations. It should be observed that during the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries trade was not carried on between *nations* but by the various *towns,* like Venice, Lübeck, Ghent, Bruges, Cologne. A merchant did not act or trade as an independent individual but as a member of a particular merchant guild, and he enjoyed the protection of his town and of the treaties it arranged.

426. Increasing Importance of Business Men. The increasing wealth of the merchants could not fail to raise them to a position of importance which earlier tradesmen had not enjoyed. They began to build fine houses and to buy the various comforts and luxuries which were finding their way into western Europe. They wanted their sons to be educated, and so it came about that other

people besides clergymen began to learn how to read and write. As early as the fourteenth century many of the books appear to have been written with a view of meeting the tastes and needs of the business class.

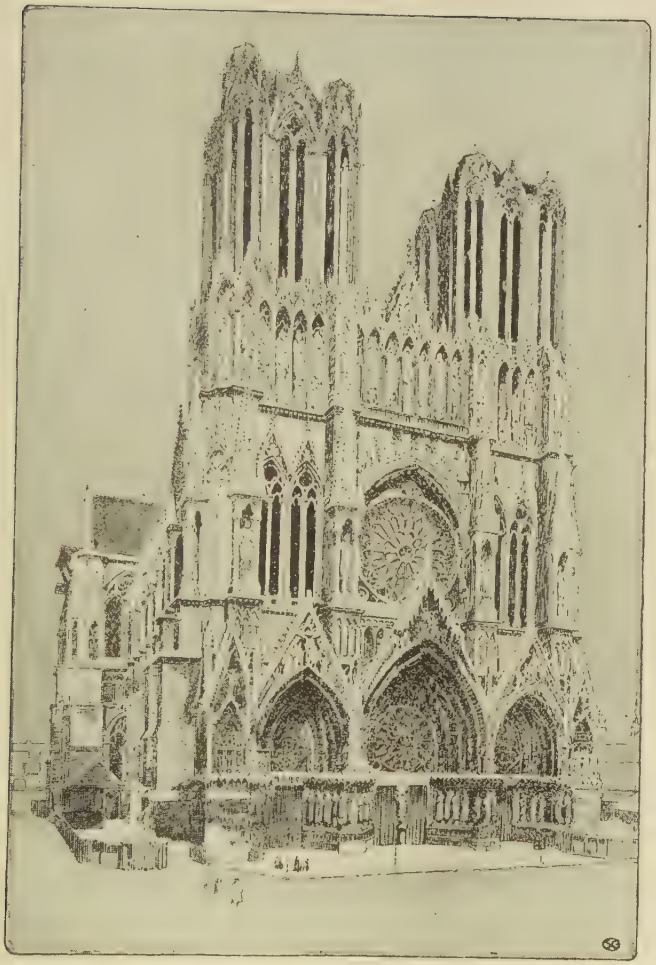
Representatives of the towns were summoned to the councils of the kings—into the English Parliament and the French Estates General about the year 1300, for the monarch was obliged to ask their advice when he needed their money to carry on his government and his wars. The rise of the business class alongside the older orders of the clergy and nobility is one of the most momentous changes of the thirteenth century.

IV. Gothic Architecture

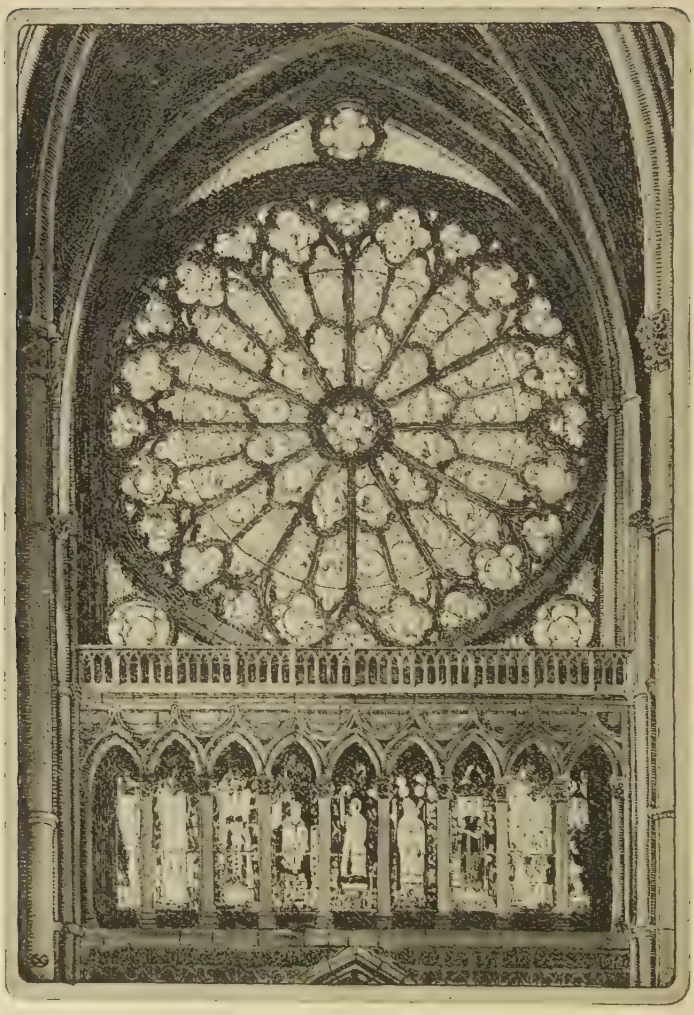
427. Medieval Buildings. Almost all the medieval buildings have disappeared in the ancient towns of Europe. The stone town walls, no longer adequate in our times, have been removed, and their place has been taken by broad and handsome avenues. The old houses have been torn down in order to widen and straighten the streets and permit the construction of modern dwellings. Here and there one can still find a walled town, but they are few in number and are merely curiosities.

Of the buildings erected in towns during the Middle Ages only the churches remain, but these fill the beholder with wonder and admiration. It seems impossible that the cities of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which were neither very large nor very rich, could possibly find money enough to pay for them. No modern buildings equal them in beauty and grandeur, and they are the most striking memorial of the religious spirit and the town pride of the Middle Ages.

The construction of a cathedral sometimes extended over two or three centuries, and much of the money for it must have been gathered penny by penny. It should be remembered that everybody belonged in those days to the one great Catholic Church, so that the building of a new church was a matter of interest to the whole community—to men of every rank, from the bishop himself to the workman and the peasant.



Façade of the Cathedral at Rheims (Thirteenth Century)



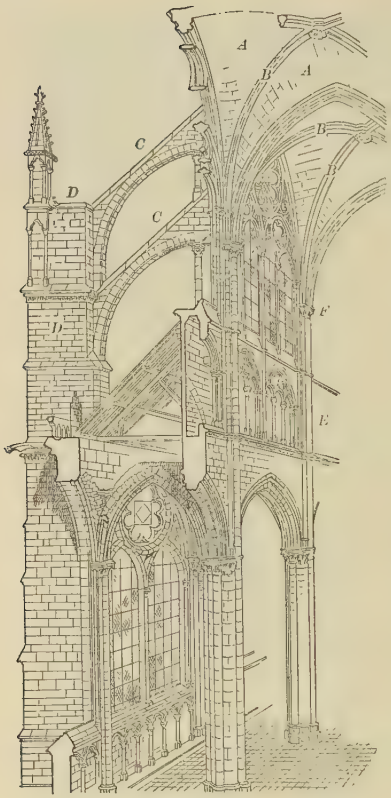
Rose Window of Rheims Cathedral, nearly Forty Feet in Diameter, from the Inside

428. The Romanesque Style. Up to the twelfth century churches were built in what is called the *Romanesque*, or Roman-like, style because they resembled the solid old buildings of the Romans. These Romanesque churches had stone ceilings and it was necessary to make the walls very thick and solid to support them. There was a main aisle in the center, called the *nave*, and

ROMANESQUE CHURCH OF CHÂTEL-MONTAGNE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF ALLIER, FRANCE

This is a pure Romanesque building with no alterations in a later style, such as are common. Heavy as the walls are, they are reënforced by buttresses along the side. All the arches are round, none of them pointed

a narrower aisle on each side, separated from the nave by massive stone pillars, which helped to hold up the heavy ceiling. These pillars were connected by round arches of stone above them. The tops of the smallish windows were round; so the *round* arches form one of the striking features of the Romanesque style which distinguish it from the Gothic style that followed it. The windows had to be small in order that the walls should not be weakened.



Cross Section of Amiens Cathedral

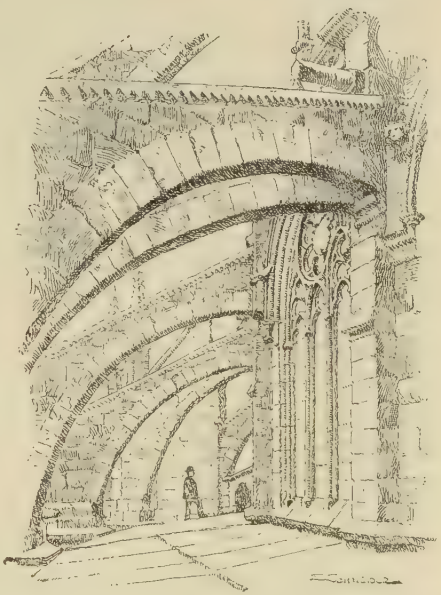
It will be noticed that there is a row of rather low windows opening under the roof of the aisle. These constitute the so-called *triforium* (*E*). Above them is the clerestory (*F*), the windows of which open between the flying buttresses. So it came about that the walls of a Gothic church were in fact mainly windows. The Egyptians were the first to invent the clerestory

429. The Gothic Style. The architects of France in the twelfth century invented a new and wonderful method of constructing churches and other buildings which enabled them to do away with the heavy walls and put high, wide, graceful windows in their place. This new style of architecture is known as the *Gothic*,[1] and its underlying principles can readily be understood from a little study of the accompanying diagram, which shows how a Gothic cathedral is supported not by heavy walls but by *buttresses*.

The architects discovered in the first place that the concave stone ceiling, which is known as the *vaulting* (*A*), could be supported by *ribs* (*B*). These could in turn be brought together and supported on top of pillars which rested on the floor of the church. So far so good! But the builders knew well enough

[1] The inappropriate name "Gothic" was given to the beautiful churches of the North by Italian architects of the sixteenth century, who did not like them and preferred to build in the style of the ancient Romans. The Italians, with their "classical" tastes, assumed that only German barbarians — whom they carelessly and ignorantly called Goths — could admire a Gothic cathedral.

that the pillars and ribs would be pushed over by the weight and outward "thrust" of the stone vaulting if they were not firmly supported from the outside. Instead of erecting heavy walls to insure this support they had recourse to buttresses (*D*), which they built quite outside the walls of the church and connected by means of "flying" buttresses (*CC*) with the points where the pillars and ribs had the greatest tendency to push outward. *In this way a vaulted stone ceiling could be supported without the use of a massive wall.* This ingenious use of buttresses instead of walls is the fundamental principle of Gothic architecture. It was discovered for the first time by the architects in the medieval towns and was apparently quite unknown to earlier builders.



Flying Buttresses of the Cathedral of Notre Dame, Paris

The wall, no longer essential for supporting the ceiling, was used only to inclose the building, and windows could be made as high and wide as pleased the architect. By the use of *pointed* instead of *round* arches it was possible to give great variety to the windows and vaulting. So pointed arches came into general use, and the Gothic is often called the "pointed" style on this account, although the use of the ribs and buttresses, not the pointed arch, is the chief peculiarity of this form of architecture.

430. Church Windows. The light from the huge windows (those at Beauvais are fifty to fifty-five feet high) would have

been too intense had it not been softened by the stained glass, set in exquisite stone tracery. The stained glass of the medieval cathedral, especially in France, where the glass workers brought their art to the greatest perfection, was one of its chief glories.

FIGURES ON NOTRE DAME, PARIS

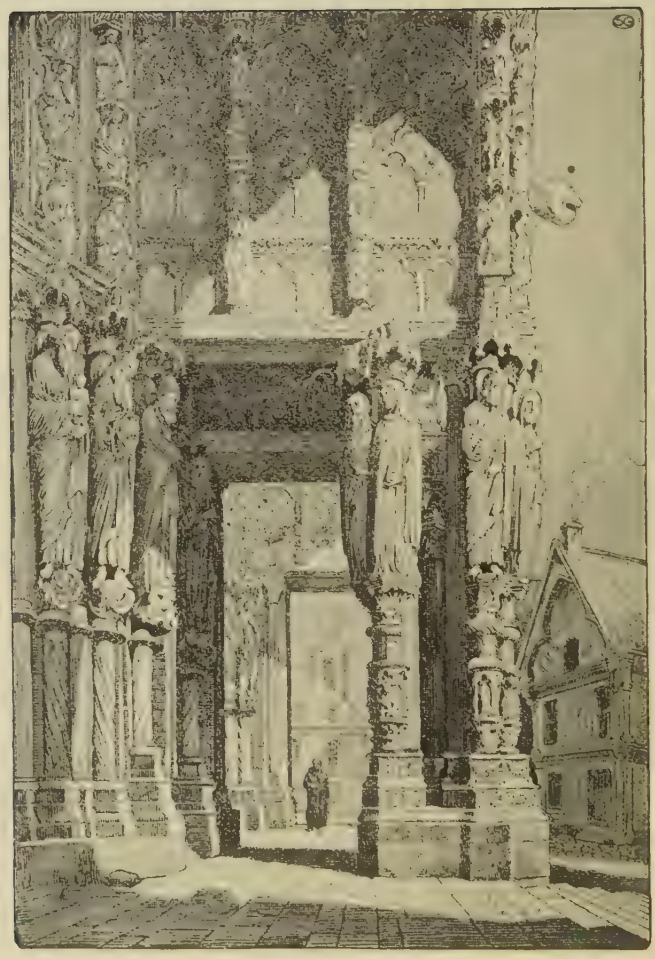
Such grotesque figures as these are very common adornments of Gothic buildings. They are often used for spouts to carry off the rain and are called gargoyles, that is, "throats" (compare our words "gargle" and "gurgle"). The two here represented are perched on a parapet of one of the church's towers

431. Gothic Sculpture. As the skill of the architects increased they became bolder and bolder and erected churches that were marvels of lightness and delicacy of ornament, without sacrificing dignity or beauty of proportion. The façade of Rheims cathedral (see cut facing page 258) was—before its mutilation by German shells during the World War—one of the most famous examples of the Gothic art of the thirteenth century, with its multitudes of sculptured figures and its gigantic rose window (see cut facing page 259), filled with exquisite stained glass of great brilliancy.

One of the charms of a Gothic building is the profusion of carving—statues of saints and rulers and scenes from the Bible cut in stone. The same kind of stone was used for both constructing the building and making the statues, so they harmonize perfectly. Here and there the Gothic stone carvers would introduce amusing faces or comical animals (see cut on following page).

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries Gothic buildings other than churches were built. The most striking and important of these were the guild halls, erected by the rich corporations of merchants, and the town halls of important cities. But the Gothic style has always seemed especially appropriate for churches.

INTERIOR OF EXETER CATHEDRAL (EARLY FOURTEENTH CENTURY)



North Porch of Chartres Cathedral (Fourteenth Century)

QUESTIONS

I. What led to the disappearance of town life before the twelfth century? Where and how did the most of the people live? Describe a medieval manor. What were the services that a serf owed his master? How did the use of money hasten the decline of serfdom?

II. How did the medieval towns grow up? Compare the medieval town with Greek and Roman cities. What class of people originally settled in the towns? What is the origin of the town charter? Describe the medieval guilds. Have we any instances of this form of organization today?

III. What led to the development of town life in the later Middle Ages? Describe the revival and extending of commerce. What were the more important commercial centers? What were some of the obstacles to business? What was the medieval attitude toward taking interest for money? What new social class grew up as a result of the development of business?

IV. What are the chief characteristics of the Romanesque style? What discoveries made the Gothic style possible? Describe the decoration of a Gothic cathedral. Can you find any examples of Romanesque or Gothic art in your neighborhood?

NOTE. Here and there about a Gothic cathedral the stone carvers were accustomed to place grotesque and comical figures and faces. During the process of restoring the cathedral at Rheims a number of these heads were brought together, and the photograph was taken upon which the illustration is based.

By the middle of the thirteenth century, two hundred years after the Norman Conquest, English begins to look somewhat familiar. Chaucer (about 1340–1400) was the first great English writer whose works are now read with pleasure, although one is sometimes puzzled by his spelling and by certain words which are no longer used. This is the way one of his tales opens:

> A poure wydow somdel stope in age,
> Was whilom dwellyng in a narwe cotage,
> Bisyde a grove, stondyng in a dale.

436. French and Provençal. In the Middle Ages, however, French, not English, was the most important of the national languages of western Europe. In France a vast literature was produced in the language of the people during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries which profoundly affected the books written in Italy, Spain, Germany, and England.

Two quite different languages had gradually developed in France from the spoken Latin of the Roman Empire. To the north French was spoken; to the south Provençal.

Very little in the ancient French language written before the year 1100 has been preserved. The West Franks undoubtedly began much earlier to sing of their heroes, of the great deeds of Clovis and Charles the Hammer. These famous rulers were, however, completely overshadowed by Charlemagne, who became the unrivaled hero of medieval poetry and romance (§ 326). It was believed that he had reigned for a hundred and twenty-five years, and the most marvelous exploits were attributed to him and his knights. He was supposed, for instance, to have led a crusade to Jerusalem. Such themes as these—more legend than history—were woven into long epics, which were the first written literature of the Frankish people.

437. Romances of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. The famous *Song of Roland*, the chief character of which was one of Charlemagne's captains, was written before the First Crusade. In the latter part of the twelfth century the romances of King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table

begin to appear. These enjoyed great popularity in all western Europe for centuries, and they are by no means forgotten yet. Arthur, of whose historical existence no one can be quite sure, was supposed to have been king of Britain shortly after the Saxons gained a foothold in the island.

Besides the long and elaborate epics, like *Roland*, and the romances in verse and prose, there were numberless short stories in verse, which usually dealt with the incidents of everyday life, especially with the comical ones.

II. The Troubadours and Chivalry

438. The Troubadours. Turning now to southern France, the beautiful songs of the *troubadours*, which were the glory of the Provençal tongue, reveal a gay and polished society at the courts of the numerous feudal princes. The troubadours traveled from court to court, not only in France but north into Germany and south into Italy, carrying with them the southern French poetry and customs. We have few examples of Provençal before the year 1100, but from that time on, for two centuries, countless songs were written.

439. Chivalry. For the student of history the chief interest of the long poems of northern France and the songs of the South lies in the insight that they give into the ideals of this feudal period. These are usually summed up in the term *chivalry*, or *knighthood*. The knights play the chief rôle in all the medieval romances; and since many of the troubadours belonged to the knightly class, they naturally have much to say of it in their songs.

Chivalry was not a formal institution established at any particular moment. Like feudalism, with which it was closely connected, it had no founder, but appeared spontaneously throughout western Europe to meet the needs and desires of the period. When the youth of good family had been carefully trained to ride his horse, use his sword, and manage his hawk in the hunt, he was made a *knight* by a ceremony in which the Church took part, although the knighthood was actually conferred by an older knight.

By knowing a person's temperament one could judge what he ought to do in order to be successful in life, and what he should avoid. For example, if one were born under the influence of Venus he should be on his guard against violent love and should choose for a trade something connected with dress or adornment; if he were born under Mars he might make armor or horseshoes or become a soldier. Many common words are really astrological terms, such as "ill-starred," "disastrous," "jovial," "saturnine," "mercurial" (derived from the names of the planets). Astrology was taught in the universities because it was supposed to be necessary for physicians to know how to choose times when the stars were favorable for particular kinds of medical treatment.

445. Alchemy. The alchemists experimented in their laboratories with the hope of finding some way of turning lead and copper into gold and silver. They also tried to discover a sovereign remedy or elixir, as they called it, which would prolong life. Even if they did not succeed in their chief aim, they learned a great deal incidentally, and finally our modern chemistry emerged from alchemy. Like astrology, alchemy goes back to ancient times, for the people of the thirteenth century got most of their ideas through the Mohammedans, who had in turn got theirs from the Greek books on the subjects.

IV. Medieval Universities and Studies

446. Origin of the Universities. All European countries now have excellent schools, colleges, and universities. These had their beginning in the later Middle Ages. With the incoming of the barbarian Germans and the break-up of the Roman Empire education largely disappeared, and for hundreds of years there was nothing in western Europe, outside of Italy and Spain, corresponding to our universities and colleges.

But by the end of the twelfth century the teachers had become so numerous in Paris that they formed a union, or guild. This union of professors was called by the usual name for corporations in the Middle Ages, *universitas*; hence our word

"university." The king and the Pope both favored the university and granted the teachers and students many of the privileges of the clergy, a class to which they were regarded as belonging because learning had for so many centuries been confined to the clergy.

About the time that we find the beginnings of a university or guild of professors at Paris, another great institution of learning was growing up at Bologna. Here the chief attention was given not to theology, as at Paris, but to the study of the law, both Roman and church law (called the Canon Law, from the Greek word meaning "rule").

The University of Oxford was founded during the reign of Henry II, probably by English students and masters who had become discontented at Paris. The University of Cambridge, as well as numerous universities in France, Italy, and Spain, were founded in the thirteenth century. The German universities were established much later, most of them in the latter half of the fourteenth century and in the fifteenth.

447. The Academic Degree. When, after some years of study, a student was examined by the professors, he was, if successful, admitted to the corporation of teachers and became a *master* himself. What we call a *degree* today was originally, in the medieval universities, nothing more than the right to teach; but in the thirteenth century many who did not care to become professors in our sense of the word began to desire the honorable title of *master* or *doctor* (which is only the Latin word for "teacher").

448. Simple Methods of Instruction. There were no university buildings, and in Paris the lectures were given in the Latin Quarter. There were no laboratories, for there was no experimentation carried on in the universities. All that was required was a copy of the textbook. This the lecturer explained sentence by sentence, and the students listened and sometimes took notes.

449. Veneration for Aristotle. The most striking peculiarity of the instruction in the medieval university was the reverence paid to Aristotle (§ 149). Most of the courses of lectures were devoted to the explanation of some one of his numerous treatises.

The teachers of the thirteenth century were so fascinated by his logic and astonished at his learning, that the great theologians of the time, Albertus Magnus (d. 1280) and Thomas Aquinas (d. 1274), devoted much time to preparing elaborate commentaries upon all his works. He was called "The Philosopher"; and so fully were scholars convinced that it had pleased God to permit Aristotle to say the last word upon each and every branch of knowledge that they humbly accepted him, along with the Bible, as one of their unquestioned authorities.

450. Scholasticism. The name "scholasticism" is commonly given to the beliefs and method of discussion of the medieval professors. To those who later outgrew the fondness for logic and the supreme respect for Aristotle, scholasticism, with its neglect of Greek and Roman literature, came to seem a dry and profitless form of education. The scholastic training in logic, if it did not increase the sum of human knowledge, accustomed the student to make careful distinctions and present his arguments in an orderly way.

451. Course of Study. No attention was given in the medieval universities to the great subject of history, nor was Greek taught. Latin had to be learned in order to carry on the work at all, but little time was given to the noble literature of the Romans. The new modern languages were considered entirely unworthy of the educated. It must of course be remembered that none of the books which we consider the great classics in English, French, Italian, or Spanish had as yet been written.

452. Petrarch tries to learn Greek. Although the medieval professors paid the greatest respect to the Greek philosopher Aristotle and made Latin translations of his works the basis of the college course, very few of them could read any Greek and none of them knew much about Homer or Plato or the Greek tragedians and historians. In the fourteenth century Petrarch (1304–1374) set the example in Italy of carefully collecting all the writings of the Romans, which he greatly admired. He made an effort to learn Greek, for he found that Cicero and other

Roman writers were constantly referring with enthusiasm to the Greek books to which they owed so much.

453. Chrysoloras begins to teach Greek in Florence (1396). Petrarch had not the patience or opportunity to master Greek, but twenty years after his death a learned Greek prelate from Constantinople, named Chrysoloras, came to Florence and found pupils eager to learn his language so that they could read the Greek books. Soon Italian scholars were going to Constantinople to carry on their studies, just as the Romans in Cicero's time had gone to Athens. They brought back copies of all the ancient writers that they could find, and by 1430 Greek books were once more known in the West, after a thousand years of neglect.

454. The Humanists. In this way western Europe *caught up with ancient times*; scholars could once more know all that the Greeks and Romans had known and could read in the original the works of Homer, Sophocles, Herodotus, Plato, Aristotle, Demosthenes, and other philosophers, historians, orators, and tragedians. Those who devoted their lives to a study of the literature of Greece and Rome were called *Humanists*. The name is derived from the Latin word *humanitas*, which means "culture." In time the colleges gave up the exclusive study of Aristotle and substituted a study of the Greek and Latin literature, and in this way what is known as our "classical" course of study originated.

V. Beginnings of Modern Inventions

455. Roger Bacon's Attack on Scholasticism. So long, however, as intellectual men confined themselves to studying the old books of Greece and Rome they were not likely to advance beyond what the Greeks and Romans had known.

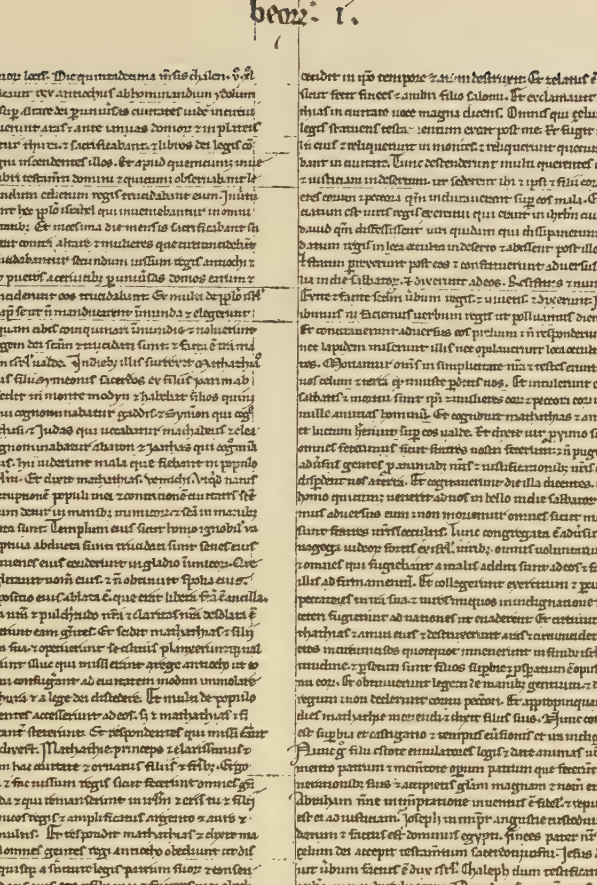
Even in the thirteenth century there were a few scholars who criticized the habit of relying upon Aristotle for all knowledge. The most distinguished faultfinder was Roger Bacon, an English Franciscan monk (d. about 1294), who declared that even if Aristotle were very wise, he had only planted the tree of knowledge,

and that this had "not as yet put forth all its branches nor produced all its fruits." "If we could continue to live for endless centuries we mortals could never hope to reach full and complete knowledge of all the things which are to be known."

456. Bacon foresees Great Inventions. Bacon declared that if men would only study common things instead of reading the books of the ancients, science could outdo the wonders which magicians of his day claimed to perform. He said that in time men would be able to fly, would have carriages which needed no horses to draw them and ships which would move swiftly without oars, and that bridges could be built without piers to support them.

All this and much more has come true, but inventors and modern scientists owe but little to the books of the Greeks and Romans, which the scholastic philosophers and the Humanists relied upon. Although the Greek philosophers devoted considerable attention to natural science, they were not much inclined to make long and careful experiments or to invent anything like the microscope or telescope to help them. Aristotle thought that the sun and all the stars revolved about the earth and that the heavenly bodies were perfect and unchangeable. He believed that heavy bodies fell faster than light ones and that all earthly things were made of the four elements—earth, air, water, and fire. The Greeks and Romans knew nothing of the compass, or gunpowder, or the printing press, or the uses to which steam can be put. Indeed, they had scarcely anything that we should call a machine.

457. Discoveries of the Thirteenth Century. The thirteenth century witnessed certain absolutely new achievements in the history of mankind. The compass began to be utilized in a way to encourage bolder and bolder ventures out upon the ocean. The lens was discovered, and before the end of the century spectacles are mentioned. The lens made possible the later telescope, microscope, spectroscope, and camera, upon which so much of our modern science depends. The Arabic numerals began to take the place of the awkward Roman system of using letters. One cannot well divide XLVIII by VIII, but he can easily divide 48 by 8.



PAGE FROM A COPY OF THE BIBLE MADE IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY
(THE EXACT SIZE OF THE ORIGINAL)

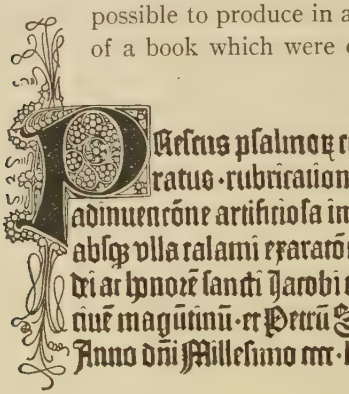
Roger Bacon knew of the explosive nature of a compound of sulphur, saltpeter, and charcoal, and a generation after his death gunpowder began to be used a little for guns and artillery. By 1350 powder works were in existence and French and English books refer now and then to its use. At least a hundred and fifty years elapsed, however, before gunpowder really began to supplant the old ways of fighting with bows and arrows and axes and lances. By the year 1500 it was becoming clear that the old stone castles were insufficient protection against cannon. Gunpowder has done away with armor, bows and arrows, spears and javelins, castles, and walled towns. It may be that sometime some such fearfully destructive compound may be discovered that the nations may decide to give up war altogether as too dangerous and terrible a thing to resort to under any circumstances.

458. Excellent Work of Medieval Copyists. The invention of the compass, lens, and gunpowder have greatly changed the habits of mankind. To these may be added the printing press, which has so encouraged education that it is becoming rare to find anyone who cannot read. The Greeks and Romans and the people of the Middle Ages knew no other method of obtaining a new copy of a book than by writing it out laboriously by hand. The professional copyists were incredibly dexterous with their quills. They made letters as clear, small, and almost as regular as if they had been printed (see cut facing page 274). After the scribe had finished his work the volume was often turned over to the *illuminator*, who would put in bright illuminated initials and sometimes page borders, which were delightful in design and color.

The written books were often both compact and beautiful, but they were never cheap or easily produced in great numbers. When Cosimo, the grandfather of Lorenzo the Magnificent, wished to form a library just before the invention of printing, he applied to a contractor, who engaged forty-five copyists. By working hard for nearly two years they were able to produce only two hundred volumes for the new library.

459. Errors of Copyists. Moreover, it was impossible before the invention of printing to have two copies of the same work

precisely alike. Even with the greatest care a scribe could not avoid making some mistakes, and a careless copyist was sure to make a great many. With the invention of printing it became possible to produce in a short time a great many copies of a book which were exactly alike. Consequently, if


Psalmorꝫ codex: venustate capitaliū decoratus · rubricationibusqꝫ sufficienter distinctus ·
adinuencōne artificiosa imprimendi ac caracterizandi:
absqꝫ vlla calami exaratōne sic effigiatus · et ad laudem
dei ac hymnoꝝ sancti Jacobi est ɔ̃sūmatꝰ, Per Johem fust
ciuē magūntinū · et Petrū Schoiffer de gernsheym clericū ·
Anno dñi Millesimo cc · lix · xxix · die · mensis Augusti,

Closing Lines of the Psalter of 1459. (Much Reduced)

The closing lines (that is, the so-called *colophon*) of the second edition of the Psalter, which are here reproduced, are substantially the same as those of the first edition. They may be translated as follows: "The present volume of the Psalms, which is adorned with handsome capitals and is clearly divided by means of rubrics, was produced not by writing with a pen but by an ingenious invention of printed characters; and was completed to the glory of God and the honor of St. James by John Fust, a citizen of Mayence, and Peter Schoifher of Gernsheim, in the year of our Lord 1459, on the 29th of August"

sufficient care was taken to see that the types were properly set, the whole edition, not simply a single copy, might be relied upon as correct.

460. Paper introduced into Western Europe. After the supply of papyrus—the paper of the Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans—was cut off from Europe by the conquest of Egypt by the Mohammedans the people of the Middle Ages used *parchment*, made from the skin of lambs and goats. This was so expensive that printing would have been of but little use, even if it had been thought of, until paper—invented by the Chinese—was introduced into Europe by the Mohammedans. Paper began to become common

PAGE FROM A BOOK OF HOURS, FIFTEENTH CENTURY
(ORIGINAL SIZE)

in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries and was already replacing parchment before the invention of printing.

461. The Earliest Printed Books. The earliest book of any considerable size to be printed was the Bible, which appears to have been completed at Mayence in the year 1456. A year later the famous Mayence Psalter was finished, the first dated book. There are, however, earlier examples of little books printed with engraved blocks and even with movable types. In the German towns, where the art spread rapidly, the printers adhered to the style of letters which the scribe had found it convenient to make with his quill—the so-called *Gothic*, or black letter. In Italy, however, where the first printing press was set up in 1466, a type was soon adopted which resembled the letters used in ancient Roman inscriptions. This was quite similar to the style of letter commonly used today.

An Old-fashioned Printing Office

Until the nineteenth century printing was carried on with very little machinery. The type was inked by hand, then the paper laid on and the form slipped under a wooden press operated by hand by means of a lever

462. Rapid Spread of Printing. By the year 1500, after printing had been used less than half a century, there appear to have been at least forty printing presses to be found in various towns of Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, and England. These presses had, it is estimated, already printed eight millions of volumes. So there was no longer any danger of the old books' being lost again, and the encouragement to write and publish new books was greatly increased. From that date our sources for history become far more voluminous than those which exist for

the previous history of the world; we are much better informed in regard to events and conditions since 1500 than we ever can be respecting those of the earlier periods.

QUESTIONS

I. Why was Latin used by the educated class in the Middle Ages? What is the origin of the Germanic languages? of the Romance languages? How did the written and spoken languages come to differ? What is the origin of dialects? Can you give any instances in the Romance languages? When does English appear sufficiently modern for us to read it easily?

II. Who were the troubadours? What were some of the ideals of this period expressed in their songs? Describe the medieval knight.

III. Why did the people of the Middle Ages know little of the past? Of what did their science consist? What was the importance of astrology? Define alchemy. To what modern subject is it related?

IV. What is the original meaning of the word "university." Give the names of some of the early universities. What is the origin of the academic degrees? What subjects were studied in the medieval universities? Why was Aristotle regarded with such veneration? What is scholasticism? How was the study of Greek revived in Europe? Who were the Humanists?

V. Why did Roger Bacon criticize the study of Aristotle? What did he propose should take its place? Mention some important discoveries made in the thirteenth century with which you are familiar today. How were books made before the invention of printing? What are the disadvantages of a book written by hand? What is the earliest large printed book? What are the chief effects of the introduction of printing?

CHAPTER XXII

ENGLAND AND FRANCE DURING THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

I. Wales and Scotland

463. Extent of the King of England's Realms before Edward I (1272–1307). The English kings who preceded Edward I had ruled over only a portion of the island of Great Britain. To the west of their kingdom lay the mountainous district of Wales, inhabited by that remnant of the original Britons which the Angles and Saxons had been unable to conquer (§ 321). To the north of England was the kingdom of Scotland, which was quite independent, except for an occasional recognition by the Scotch kings of the English rulers as their feudal superiors. Edward I, however, succeeded in conquering Wales permanently and spent much time in attempting to add Scotland to his possessions.

464. Edward I conquers Wales. For centuries a border warfare had been carried on between the English and the Welsh. When Edward I came to the throne he demanded that Llewellyn, Prince of Wales (as the head of the Welsh clans was called), should do him homage. Llewellyn, who was a man of ability and energy, refused the king's summons, and Edward marched into Wales. Two campaigns were necessary before the Welsh finally succumbed. Llewellyn was killed (1282), and with him expired the independence of the Welsh people.

Edward introduced English laws and customs into Wales, but was so conciliatory in his policy that the rule of the English was accepted with no great opposition. He gave his son the title of "Prince of Wales," which the heir to the English throne still retains.

465. Scotland and Edward I's Attempt to conquer it. The conquest of Scotland proved a far more difficult matter than that of Wales. When the Angles and Saxons conquered Britain some of them wandered north as far as the Firth of Forth and occupied the so-called "Lowlands" of Scotland. The mountainous region to the north, known as the "Highlands," continued to be held by wild tribes related to the Welsh and Irish and talking a language similar to theirs, namely, Gaelic. There was constant warfare between the older inhabitants themselves, and between them and the newcomers from Germany, but both Highlands and Lowlands were finally united under a line of Scotch kings, who moved their residence down to Edinburgh, which, with its fortress, became their chief town.

It was natural that the language of the Scotch Lowlands should be English, but in the mountains the Highlanders to this day continue to talk the ancient Gaelic of their forefathers.

When the old line of Scotch monarchs died out in 1290, Edward was invited to decide who should be the next ruler. He did so on condition that the new king should hold Scotland as a fief from the English king. But Edward's demands roused the anger of the Scotch, and they declared themselves independent. The English monarch regarded this as a rebellion, and he made various attempts to incorporate Scotland with England by force, in the same way that he had treated Wales.

Scotland was able to maintain her independence largely through the skill of Robert Bruce, a national hero who united the people under his leadership. Edward I died, old and worn out, in 1307 and left the task of dealing with the Scotch to his incompetent son, Edward II. The Scotch made Bruce their king and defeated Edward II in the great battle of Bannockburn (1314), the most famous conflict in Scottish history. While England was forced to recognize the independence of Scotland, intermittent war between the two countries continued for nearly three hundred years after the battle of Bannockburn. Finally, a Scotch king ascended the English throne as James I, in 1603, and a hundred years later the countries were at last united as they are today.

THE
BRITISH ISLES
SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100 120
SHETLAND ISLANDS
WHALSEY
FAIR I.
ORKNEY ISLANDS
POMONA
C. Wrath
Pentland Firth
Duncansby Head
THE MINCH
HEBRIDES IS.
LITTLE MINCH
Gulf of the Hebrides
Moray Firth
Kinnaird Head
R. Spey
Aberdeen
Caledonian Canal
GRAMPIAN HILLS
BEN NEVIS
R. Tay
Dundee
Scone
TIREE I.
MULL
Firth of Lorne
BEN LOMOND
Bannockburn
Firth of Forth
Glasgow
EDINBURGH
Paisley
R. Clyde
R. Tweed
OCEAN
NORTH SEA
10 8 6 4 2 0 2
60
58
56

Londonderry
Belfast
Belfast L.
Donegal Bay
Lough Neagh
Erris Hd.
L. Erne
L. Strangford
ISLE OF MAN
Solway Firth
CUMBERLAND
DURHAM
Whitby
WESTMORLAND
LANCASHIRE
Flamborough Head
York
YORKSHIRE
IRISH SEA
Morecambe B.
ACHILL I.
Slyne Hd.
L. Ree
Howth Hd.
Boyne R.
Galway
DUBLIN
ARRAN ISLS.
Galway Bay
L. Derg
Mouth of the Humber
Liverpool
Chester
ANGLESEY
CHESHIRE
DERBY
LINCOLN
The Wash
Boston
Shannon R.
Barrow R.
Kilkenny
Cardigan Bay
SHROPSHIRE
Shrewsbury
Stourbridge
NORFOLK
Killarney
Blackwater R.
Lakes of Killarney
Cork
Queenstown
Cork Harbour
Bantry B.
C. Clear
ST. GEORGES CHANNEL
St. Davids Hd.
Carmarthen Bay
Bristol Channel
Cambridge
SUFFOLK
ESSEX
Mouth of the Thames
Greenwich
LONDON
Canterbury
KENT
Wells
SOMERSET
Salisbury
HAMPSHIRE
SURREY
SUSSEX
Seniac
Hastings
Strait of Dover
DEVON
Exeter
DORSET
ISLE OF WIGHT
CORNWALL
Portland Bill
Land's End
SCILLY IS.
Lizard Pt.
ENGLISH CHANNEL
CHANNEL ISLANDS
JERSEY
Seine R.
FRANCE
54
52
50
10
8
6
4
2
0
Longitude West from Greenwich
Longitude East

The little Scotch nation differs in habits and character from the English, and no Scotchman likes to be mistaken for an Englishman. The peculiarities of the language and the characteristic habits of the people north of the river Tweed, which is the boundary line, have been made familiar to readers of Walter Scott, Robert Burns, and Robert Louis Stevenson.

II. Beginnings of the English Parliament

466. Origin of the English Parliament. One of the most important things to be noted in the period of the Edwards (1272–1377) was the rise of the English Parliament, which was long after to become the model for similar assemblies in all parts of the civilized world.

The Great Council of the Norman kings, like the older Witenagemot of Saxon times (§ 369), was a meeting of nobles, bishops, and abbots, which the king summoned from time to time to give him advice and aid and to sanction serious undertakings. During the reign of Edward I's father a famous Parliament was held where a most important new class of members—the *commons*—were present. These were destined to give it its future greatness because they represented the interests and wishes of the great mass of influential people. In addition to the nobles and prelates, two country gentlemen (knights) were summoned from each county and two citizens from each of the more flourishing towns to attend and take part in the discussions.

Edward I definitely adopted this innovation. He doubtless called in the representatives of the towns because the townspeople were becoming rich and he wished to have an opportunity to ask them to make grants of money to meet the expenses of the government. He also wished to obtain the approval of all the important classes when he determined upon important measures affecting the whole realm. Ever since the so-called "Model Parliament" of 1295 the commons, or representatives of the "freemen," have always been included along with the clergy and nobility when the national assembly of England has been summoned.

467. Growth of the Powers of Parliament. The Parliament early took the stand that the king must agree to "redress of grievances" before it would grant him any money. This meant that the king had to promise to remedy any acts of himself or his officials of which Parliament complained before it would agree to let him raise the taxes. Instead of following the king about and meeting wherever he might happen to be, the Parliament from the time of Edward I began to hold its sessions in the city of Westminster, now a part of London, where it still continues to meet.

Under Edward's successor, Edward II, Parliament solemnly declared (in 1322) that important matters relating to the king and his heirs, the state of the realm and of the people, should be considered and determined upon by the king "with the assent of the prelates, earls and barons, and the commonalty [that is, commons] of the realm." Five years later, Parliament showed its power by deposing the inefficient king, Edward II, and declaring his son, Edward III, the rightful ruler of England.

The new king, who was carrying on an expensive war with France, needed much money and consequently summoned Parliament every year, and, in order to encourage its members to grant him money, he gratified Parliament by asking its advice and listening to its petitions. He passed no new law without adding "by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal and of the commons."

468. House of Lords and House of Commons. At this time the separation of the two houses of Parliament took place, and ever since the "lords spiritual and temporal"—that is, the bishops and higher nobles—have sat by themselves in the House of Lords; and the members of the House of Commons, including the country gentlemen (knights) and the representatives elected by the more important towns, have met by themselves. Parliament thus made up is really a modern, not a medieval, institution, and we shall hear much of it later.

III. The Hundred Years' War

469. Edward III claims the French Crown. There had been, as we have seen, a long struggle between the French and English kings in the times of the Plantagenets, which had resulted in the English kings' losing all their French territory except the duchy of Guienne (§ 375). This arrangement lasted for many years, but, in the time of Edward III, the old line of French kings died out and Edward declared himself the rightful ruler of France because his mother was a sister of the last king of the old line. This led to a long series of conflicts known as the Hundred Years' War.

470. Battle of Cressy. The French set up a king of their own, and in 1346 Edward landed in Normandy with an English army, devastated the country, and marched up the Seine toward Paris. He met the troops of the French king at Cressy, where a celebrated battle was fought, in which the English with their long bows and well-directed arrows put to rout the French knights. Ten years later the English made another incursion into France and again defeated the French cavalry. The French king (John II) was himself captured and carried off to London.

471. Edward III finds it Impossible to conquer France. Edward III found it impossible, however, to conquer France, and Charles V, the successor of the French king John II, managed before Edward died in 1377 to get back almost all the lands that the English had occupied.

For a generation after the death of Edward III the war with France was almost discontinued. France had suffered a great deal more than England. All the fighting had been done on her side of the Channel, and in the second place, the soldiers, who found themselves without occupation, wandered about in bands maltreating and plundering the people.

472. The Bubonic Plague of 1348–1349 (the "Black Death"). The horrors of war had been increased by the deadly bubonic plague, which appeared in Europe early in 1348. In April it had reached Florence; by August it was devastating

France and Germany; it then spread over England, attacking every part of the country during the year 1349. This disease, like other terrible epidemics, such as smallpox and cholera, came from Asia. Those who were stricken with it usually died in two or three days. It is supposed that about half the population of England was carried off by the "Black Death."

473. The Peasant Revolt of 1381. In England there was growing discontent among the farming classes. Up to this time the majority of those who cultivated the land were serfs, or villains, who belonged to some particular manor, paid dues to their lord, and worked for him (§§ 404–407). Hitherto there had been new farm hands who could be hired. The Black Death, by greatly decreasing the number of laborers, raised the wages of those who survived and created a great demand for them. The serfs now began to think the dues and work demanded of them by their lords very unjust. In 1381, not long after the death of Edward III, the peasants rose in revolt against their lot and the heavy taxes levied to carry on the unpopular French wars. They burned some of the manor houses belonging to the nobility and the rich bishops and abbots and so destroyed the registers in which their obligations were recorded.

474. Disappearance of Serfdom in England. Although the peasants met with little success, serfdom rapidly disappeared in England. It became more and more common for the former serf to pay his dues in money instead of work. The landlord then either hired men to cultivate his fields or rented them to tenants. Sixty or seventy years after the Peasant Revolt the English farming population had in one way or another become free men and the serfs had practically disappeared.

475. John Wycliffe. Among those accused of encouraging the Peasant Revolt was John Wycliffe, a teacher of Oxford. He sought to reform the Church and organized a group of "simple priests" to preach to the people. He translated the Bible from Latin into English so that it might be more commonly read. He found himself opposed by the Pope and the churchmen, and finally went so far as to deny that the Pope was the rightful head of the

Church. He was a forerunner of the Protestants, who appeared a hundred and fifty years after his time.

476. Renewal of the Hundred Years' War (1415). The war between England and France almost ceased for about forty years after the death of Edward III. It was renewed in 1415, and the English king, Henry V, won another great victory at Agincourt, similar to that won at Cressy. Once more the English bowmen slaughtered great numbers of French knights. Fifteen years later the English had succeeded in conquering all of France north of the Loire River, but a considerable region to the south still continued to be held by King Charles VII of France. He was weak and indolent and was doing nothing to check the English victories.

477. Joan of Arc. Help came to the French from a most unexpected quarter. A peasant girl, Joan of Arc, heard voices and saw visions which led her to put on a soldier's armor, mount a horse, and go to the assistance of the great town of Orleans, which was being besieged by the English. She was accepted as a God-sent champion, and the English were routed. The "Maid of Orleans," as she came to be called, felt that her mission was fulfilled after the king had been crowned at Rheims in 1429. But the king would not let her go, and she continued to fight his battles with success. But the soldiers hated to be led by a woman, and she was soon surrendered by her enemies to the English. They declared that she was a witch, who had won her victories with the help of the devil. She was tried by a court of clergymen, found guilty, and cruelly burned alive in Rouen in 1431.

478. England loses her French Possessions. Joan of Arc died bravely. Her example had given new courage to the dispirited French. Moreover, the English Parliament became reluctant to grant funds for a war that was going against them. From this time on England lost ground rapidly. Her troops were expelled from Normandy in 1450, and three years later southern France passed into the hands of the French king. The Hundred Years' War was over, and the great question which had existed since the Norman Conquest, whether English kings could succeed in extending their sway across the English Channel, was finally settled.

IV. England and France after the Hundred Years' War

479. The Wars of the Roses (1455–1485). The close of the Hundred Years' War was followed in England by the Wars of the Roses, between the rival families Lancaster and York (both descended from Edward III), which were struggling for the crown. The badge of the house of Lancaster was a red rose, and that of York was a white one. Each party was supported by a group of wealthy and powerful nobles whose conspiracies, treasons, murders, and executions fill the annals of England during this disturbed period of her history.

480. Henry VII and the Power of the Tudor Kings. The Wars of the Roses were brought to an end when Henry VII, a descendant of Edward III on his mother's side, came to the throne in 1485. He was the first of the house of Tudor, from which he and his successors get their name, Tudors. A great part of the nobility, whom the kings had formerly feared, had perished in war or been executed by their enemies. This left the monarch far more powerful than ever before. He managed to control Parliament, and for a century or more after Henry VII's accession the Tudor kings exercised an almost despotic power. England ceased for a time to enjoy the free government for which the foundations had been laid under the Edwards.

481. The French Estates General. The French had organized a parliament, called the Estates General, about the time that the English Parliament was growing up. It contained representatives of the towns as well as those of the clergy and nobility. It met from time to time during the Hundred Years' War, but was never able to force the king to admit that he had no right to levy taxes without consulting the Estates General.

482. France establishes a Standing Army (1349). In France the closing years of the Hundred Years' War witnessed a great increase of the king's power through the establishment of a well-organized standing army. The feudal army had long since disappeared. Even before the opening of the war the nobles had

begun to be paid for their military services and no longer furnished troops as a condition of holding fiefs. But the companies of soldiers found their pay very uncertain and plundered their countrymen as well as the enemy.

The Estates agreed in 1439 that the king should use a certain tax, called the *taille*, to support the troops necessary for the protection of the frontier. This was a fatal concession, for the king now had an army and the right to collect what he chose to consider a permanent tax, the amount of which he later greatly increased; he was not dependent, as was the English king, upon the grants made for brief periods by the representatives of the nation assembled in Parliament.

483. How Louis XI strengthened the King's Power in France. Before the king of France could establish a compact, well-organized state it was necessary for him to reduce the power of the nobles. They had already been forbidden to coin money, maintain armies of their own, or tax their subjects, but some of them still were in a position to threaten the king at the close of the Hundred Years' War. The task of further reducing their power fell to Louis XI (1461–1483), a shrewd but unscrupulous monarch. Some of his vassals, especially the dukes of Burgundy, gave him a great deal of trouble. While the English nobles were killing one another in the Wars of the Roses, Louis managed to get a number of hitherto half-independent provinces of France—such as Anjou, Maine, Provence, etc.—under his immediate control. He humiliated in various ways the vassals who had ventured in his early days to combine against him. Louis was an efficient monarch in building up a strong government, but it sometimes seemed as if he gloried in being the most rascally among rascals and the most treacherous among traitors.

484. England and France establish Strong National Governments. Both England and France emerged from the troubles and desolations of the Hundred Years' War stronger than ever before. In both countries the kings had overcome the old menace of feudalism by destroying the influence of the great families. The king's government was becoming constantly more powerful.

Commerce and industry increased the people's wealth and supplied the monarchs with the revenue necessary to maintain government officials and a sufficient army to keep order throughout their realms. They were no longer forced to rely upon the uncertain fidelity of their vassals. In short, England and France were both becoming modern states.

QUESTIONS

I. How did Wales come under the English kings? Describe the struggle of Edward I to gain Scotland. What are the Highlands and the Lowlands of Scotland?

II. Give an account of the beginnings of the English Parliament. When were the *commons* first invited to attend? Give an account of the growth of the powers of Parliament. How is Parliament constituted? Do you know the relative importance of the rôle of the House of Lords and the House of Commons today?

III. What was the reason for, and the general course of, the Hundred Years' War? What was the "Black Death"? What conditions led to the Peasant Revolt? Who was John Wycliffe? How was the Hundred Years' War brought to a close?

IV. What were the results of the Wars of the Roses? Why did the Estates General fail to become as powerful as the English Parliament? How did England and France begin to establish strong national governments?

CHAPTER XXIII

ITALY AND THE RENAISSANCE

I. The Italian Cities during the Renaissance

485. The Flourishing of the Italian Cities; the Renaissance. We have already seen how town life developed in northern Europe during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries (Chapter XX, above). In the following two centuries, while England and France were engaged in the weary Hundred Years' War, the Italian cities reached a degree of prosperity and refinement in buildings and art unknown north of the Alps.

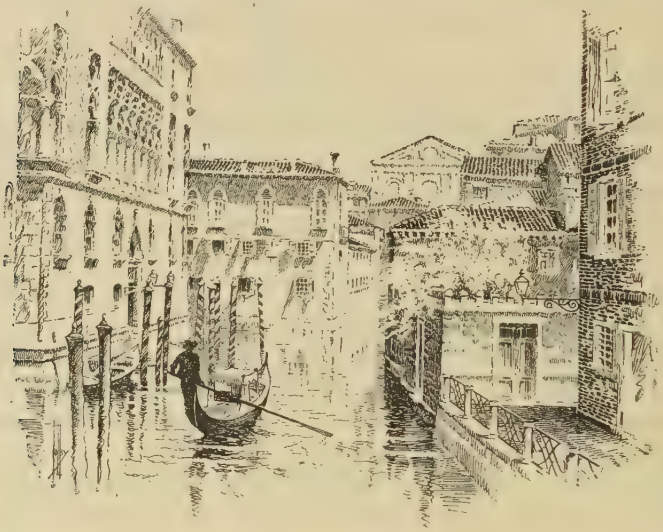
Within their walls the Humanists revived the lost knowledge of Greece and Rome (§ 454); learning, painting, sculpture, and architecture made such extraordinary progress that a special name is often given to the period when they flourished—the *Renaissance*,[1] or new birth. The Italian towns, like those of ancient Greece, were each a little state with its own peculiar life and institutions. Some of them, like Rome, Milan, and Pisa, had been important in Roman times; others, like Venice, Florence, and Genoa, did not become conspicuous until the time of the Crusades.

The map of Italy at the beginning of the fourteenth century was divided into three zones. To the south lay the kingdom of Naples. Then came the states of the Church, extending diagonally across the peninsula. To the north and west lay the group of city-states to which we now turn our attention.

486. Venice and its Relations with the East. Of these city-states none was more celebrated than Venice, which in the history of Europe ranks in importance with Paris and London. This singular town was built upon a group of sandy islets lying in the

[1] This word, although originally French, has come into such common use that it is quite permissible to pronounce it as if it were English,—*re-nā'sens*.

Adriatic Sea, about two miles from the mainland. It was protected from the waves by a long, narrow sand bar similar to those which fringe the Atlantic coast from New Jersey southward. Even before the Crusades Venice had begun to engage in foreign trade. Its enterprises carried it eastward, and it early acquired

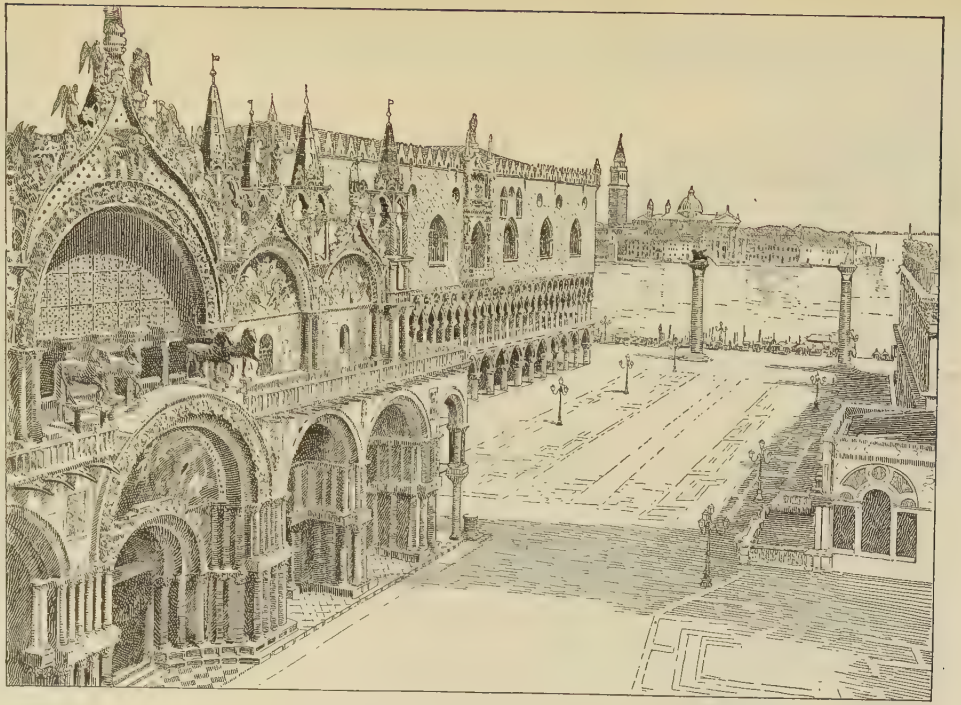


A Scene in Venice

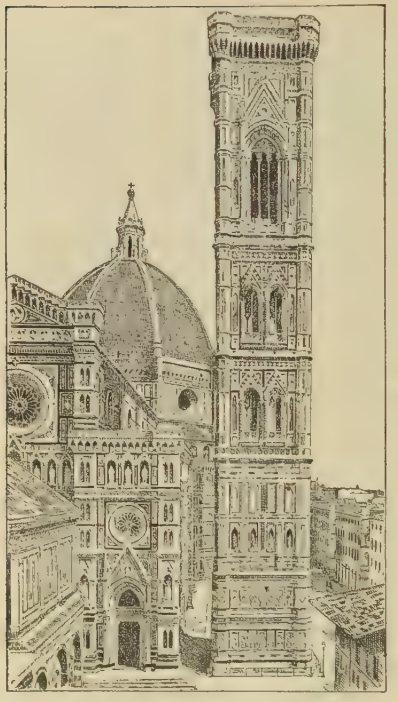
Boats, called gondolas, are used instead of carriages in Venice; one can reach any point in the city by some one of the numerous canals, which take the place of streets. There are also narrow lanes along the canals, crossing them here and there by bridges, so one can wander about the town on foot

possessions across the Adriatic and in the Orient. It also extended its sway over a considerable part of the Italian mainland to the west of the city.

487. Height and Decline of Venice's Power. About the year 1400 Venice reached the height of its prosperity. It had a population of two hundred thousand, which was very large for those days. It had three hundred seagoing vessels, which went to and fro in the Mediterranean, carrying wares between the East and the West. It had a war fleet of forty-five galleys, manned



St. Mark's, Venice



CATHEDRAL AND BELL TOWER AT FLORENCE

The church was begun in 1296 and completed in 1436. The great dome built by the architect Brunelleschi has made his name famous. It is three hundred feet high. The façade is modern but after an old design. The bell tower, or campanile, was begun by the celebrated painter Giotto about 1335 and completed about fifty years later. It is richly adorned with sculpture and colored marbles and is considered the finest structure of the kind in the world

490. The Medici; Lorenzo the Magnificent. By the middle of the fifteenth century Florence had come under the control of the great family of the Medici, whose members played the rôle of very enlightened political bosses. By quietly watching the elections and secretly controlling the choice of city officials they governed without letting it be suspected that the people had lost their power. The most distinguished member of the house of Medici was Lorenzo the Magnificent (d. 1492); under his rule Florence reached the height of its glory in art and literature.

As one wanders about Florence today he is impressed with the contradictions of the Renaissance period. The streets are lined with the palaces of the noble families to whose rivalries much of the continual disturbance was due. The lower stories of these buildings are constructed of great stones, like fortresses, and their windows are barred like those of a prison; yet within they were often furnished with the greatest taste and luxury. For in spite of the disorder, against which the

rich protected themselves by making their houses half strongholds, the beautiful churches, noble public buildings, and the works of art which now fill the Florentine museums indicate that mankind has never, perhaps, reached a higher degree of taste and skill

St. Peter's and the Vatican Palace

This is the largest church in the world. It is about seven hundred feet long, including the portico, and four hundred and thirty-five feet high from the pavement to the cross on the dome. The reconstruction was begun as early as 1450, but it proceeded very slowly. Several great architects, Bramante, Raphael, Michael Angelo, and others were intrusted with the work. After many changes of plan the new church was finally in condition to consecrate in 1626. It is estimated that it cost over $50,000,000. The construction of the vast palace of the popes, which one sees to the right of the church, was carried on during the same period. It is said to have no less than eleven thousand rooms. Some of them are used for museums, and others are celebrated for the frescoes which adorn their walls, by Raphael, Michael Angelo, and others of Italy's greatest artists

in the arts of peace than did the citizens of Florence under the rule of the despots and amid the turmoil of their restless town.

491. Rome, the Capital of the Popes. During the period in which Venice and Florence became leaders in wealth and refinement Rome, the capital of the popes, underwent a great change. The popes had resided in France, at Avignon (§ 363), during

the greater part of the fourteenth century, and then there had followed for forty years a struggle between rival lines of popes at Avignon and at Rome. Conditions were accordingly highly unfavorable for improving the city. But later, in the time of Lorenzo the Magnificent, it became possible for the popes to turn their attention to reviving the ancient glory of Rome. Architects and painters and men of letters were called in and encouraged by the popes to erect and adorn magnificent buildings and to collect a great and still famous library in the Vatican Palace.

492. St. Peter's and the Vatican. The old church of St. Peter no longer satisfied the aspirations of the popes. It was gradually torn down, and the present church, with its vast dome and imposing approach, took its place. The old palace of the Lateran, where the government of the popes had been carried on for a thousand years, had been deserted after the return from Avignon, and the new palace of the Vatican was gradually constructed to the right of St. Peter's. It has innumerable rooms,—great and small,—some of them, such as the famous Sistine Chapel, adorned by the most celebrated Italian painters of the Renaissance; others are filled with ancient statuary.

As one visits Venice, Florence, and Rome today he may still see, almost perfectly preserved, many of the finest of the buildings, paintings, and monuments which belong to the period we have been discussing.

II. The Art of the Renaissance

493. Development of Art in Italy. We have already described briefly the work of the medieval architects and referred to the striking carvings that adorned the Gothic cathedrals and to the pictures of saints and angels in stained glass which filled the great church windows. But in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries art developed in a most astonishing manner in Italy and set new standards for all of western Europe.

Florence was the great center of artistic activity during the fifteenth century. The greatest sculptors and almost all of the

Ghiberti's Doors at Florence

Holy Family. (By Andrea del Sarto)

most famous painters and architects of the time either were natives of Florence or did their best work in that city.[1]

With the death of Lorenzo the Magnificent (1492), who was a devoted patron of all the arts, the preëminence of Florence as an art center passed to Rome, which was fast becoming, as we have seen, one of the great capitals of Europe.

494. Height of Renaissance Art—Da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Raphael. During the sixteenth century the art of the Renaissance reached its highest development. Among all the great artists of this period three stand out prominently—Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, and Raphael. The first two not only practiced but achieved distinction in the three arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting. It is impossible to give in a few lines any idea of the beauty and significance of the work of these great geniuses. Both Raphael and Michael Angelo left behind them so many magnificent frescoes and paintings, and in the case of Michael Angelo statues as well, that it is easy to appreciate their importance. Leonardo, on the other hand, left but little completed work. His influence on the art of his time, which was probably greater than that of either of the others, came from his versatility, originality, and application of new methods.

While Florence could no longer boast of being the art center of Italy, it still produced great artists, among whom Andrea del Sarto may be especially mentioned. But the most important center of artistic activity outside of Rome in the sixteenth century was Venice. The distinguishing characteristic of the Venetian pictures is their glowing color. This is strikingly exemplified in the paintings of Titian, the most famous of all the Venetian painters.

495. Painting in Northern Europe. It was natural that artists from the northern countries should be attracted by the renown of the Italian masters and, after learning all that Italy could teach them, should return home to practice their art in

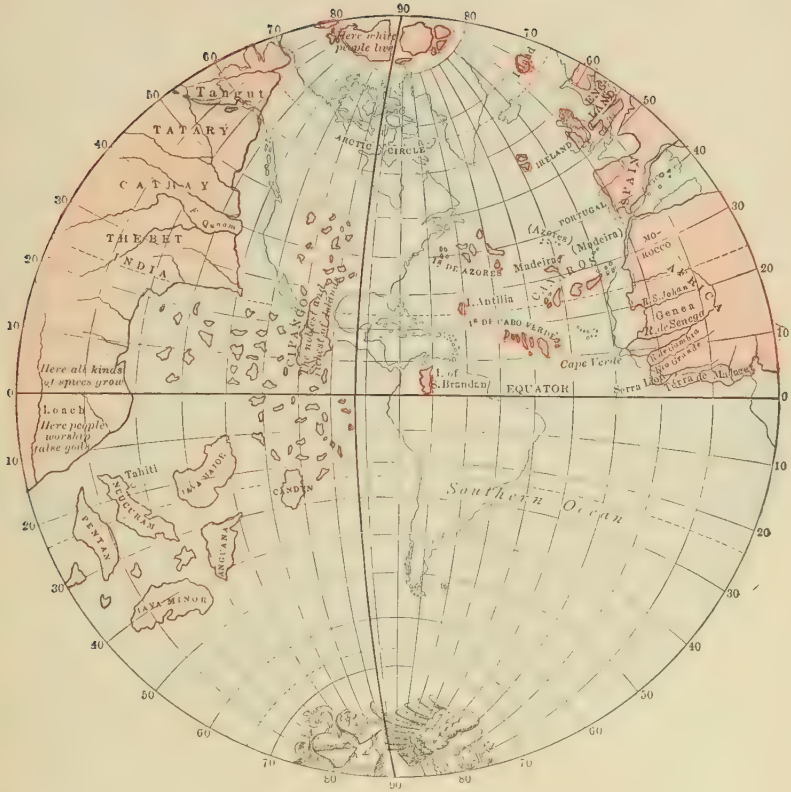
[1] Opposite the cathedral at Florence stands the ancient baptistery. Its northern bronze doors, with ten scenes from the Bible, surrounded by a very lovely border of foliage, birds, and animals, were completed by Lorenzo Ghiberti in 1452, after many years of labor. Michael Angelo declared them worthy to be the gates of heaven.

their own particular fashion. About a century after painting began to develop in Italy two Flemish brothers, Van Eyck by name, not only showed that they were able to paint quite as excellent pictures as the Italians of their day but also discovered a new way of mixing their colors superior to that employed in Italy. Later, when painting had reached its height in Italy, Albrecht Dürer and Hans Holbein the Younger in Germany vied with even Raphael and Michael Angelo in the mastery of their art.

III. Early Geographical Discoveries

496. Medieval Commerce on a Small Scale. The business and commerce of the medieval towns—even of the Italian cities, such as Venice and Genoa—was on what would seem to us a rather small scale. There were no great factories, like those which have grown up in recent times since the introduction of steam and machinery, and the ships which sailed the Mediterranean and the North Sea held only a very light cargo compared with modern merchant vessels. The gradual growth of a world commerce began with the sea voyages of the fifteenth century. These led to the exploration by Europeans of the whole globe, most of which was entirely unknown to the Venetian merchants and those who carried on the trade of the Hanseatic League. The Greeks and Romans knew little about the world beyond southern Europe, northern Africa, and western Asia, and much that they knew was forgotten during the Middle Ages. The Crusades took many Europeans as far east as Egypt and Syria.

497. Marco Polo. About 1260 two Venetian merchants, the Polo brothers, visited China and were kindly received at Peking by the emperor of the Mongols. On a second journey they were accompanied by Marco Polo, the son of one of them. When they got back to Venice in 1295, after a journey of twenty years, Marco wrote an account of his experiences which filled his readers with wonder. Nothing stimulated the interest of the West more than his fabulous description of the abundance of gold in Zipangu (Japan) and of the spice markets of the Moluccas and Ceylon.



A Map of the Globe in the Time of Columbus

In 1492 a German mariner, Behaim, made a globe which is still preserved in Nuremberg. He did not know of the existence of the American continents or of the vast Pacific Ocean. It will be noticed that he places Japan (Cipango) where Mexico lies. In the reproduction many names are omitted and the outlines of North and South America are sketched in so as to make clear the misconceptions of Columbus's time

498. The Discoveries of the Portuguese. By the middle of the fourteenth century the Portuguese had discovered the Canary Islands, Madeira, and the Azores. Before this time no one had ventured along the coast of Africa beyond the arid region of Sahara. The country was forbidding, there were no ports, and mariners were, moreover, discouraged by the general belief that the torrid region was uninhabitable. In 1445, however, some adventurous sailors came within sight of a headland beyond the desert, and, struck by its luxuriant growth of tropical trees, they called it Cape Verde (the green cape). Its discovery put an end once for all to the idea that there were only parched deserts to the south.

For a generation the Portuguese ventured farther and farther along the coast, in the hope of finding it coming to an end, so that they might make their way by sea to India. At last, in 1486, Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope. Twelve years later (1498) Vasco da Gama, spurred on by Columbus's great discovery, after sailing around the Cape of Good Hope and northward beyond Zanzibar, aided by an Arab pilot, steered straight across the Indian Ocean and reached Calicut, in Hindustan, by sea.

499. The Spice Trade. The Portuguese concluded treaties with the Indian princes and established trading stations at Goa and elsewhere. In 1512 a successor of Vasco da Gama reached Java and the Moluccas, where the Portuguese speedily built a fortress. By 1515 Portugal had become the greatest among sea powers, and spices reached Lisbon regularly without the intervention of the Mohammedan merchants or the Italian towns, which, especially Venice, were mortally afflicted by the change (§ 487).

There is no doubt that the desire to obtain spices was at this time the main reason for the exploration of the globe. This motive led European navigators to try in succession every possible way to reach the East—by going around Africa, by sailing west in the hope of reaching the Indies (before they knew of the existence of America), then, after America was discovered, by sailing around it to the north or south, and even sailing around Europe to the north.

It is hard for us to understand this enthusiasm for spices. One former use of spices was to preserve food, which could not then as now be carried rapidly, while still fresh, from place to place; nor did our conveniences then exist for keeping it by the use of ice. Moreover, spice served to make even spoiled food more palatable than it would otherwise have been.

500. Idea of reaching the Spice Islands by sailing Westward. It inevitably occurred to thoughtful men that the East Indies could be reached by sailing *westward*. Intelligent people knew, all through the Middle Ages, that the earth was a globe. The chief authority upon the form and size of the earth continued to be the ancient astronomer Ptolemy (§ 265), who had lived about A.D. 150. He had reckoned the earth to be about one sixth smaller than it is; and as Marco Polo had given an exaggerated idea of the distance which he and his companions had traveled eastward, and as no one suspected the existence of the American continents, it was supposed that it could not be a very long journey from Europe across the Atlantic to Japan.

501. Columbus discovers America (1492). In 1492, as we all know, a Genoese navigator, Columbus (b. 1451), who had had much experience on the sea, got together three little ships and undertook the journey westward to Zipangu,—the land of gold,—which he hoped to reach in five weeks. After thirty-two days from the time he left the Canary Islands he came upon land, the island of San Salvador, and believed himself to be in the East Indies. Going on from there he discovered the island of Cuba, which he believed to be the mainland of Asia, and then Haiti, which he mistook for the longed-for Zipangu. Although he made three later expeditions and sailed down the coast of South America as far as the Orinoco, he died without realizing that he had not been exploring the coast of Asia.

502. Magellan's Expedition around the World. After the bold enterprises of Vasco da Gama and Columbus an expedition headed by the Portuguese Magellan succeeded in circumnavigating the globe. There was now no reason why the new lands should not become more and more familiar to the European nations.

THE VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY

THE MALAY ARCHIPELAGO

The outline of the United States has been drawn in to make clear the vast extent of the region explored by the Portuguese at the opening of the sixteenth century. It is not far from two thousand miles from Ceylon to Malacca Strait, and as far from there on to the Spice Islands as from Denver, Colorado, to Richmond, Virginia

The coast of North America was explored principally by English navigators, who for over a century pressed northward, still in the vain hope of finding a northwest passage to the Spice Islands.

503. The Spanish Conquests in America. Cortes began the Spanish conquests in the western world by undertaking the subjugation of the Aztec empire in Mexico in 1519. A few years later Pizarro established the Spanish power in Peru. Spain now superseded Portugal as a maritime power, and her importance in the sixteenth century is to be attributed largely to the wealth which came to her from her possessions in the New World.

By the end of the century the Spanish Main—that is, the northern coast of South America—was much frequented by adventurous seamen, who combined in about equal parts the occupations of merchant, slaver, and pirate. Many of these hailed from English ports, and it is to them that England owes the beginning of her commercial greatness.

The exploration of the globe and the conquest, by European nations, of peoples beyond the sea led finally to the vast colonization of modern times, which has caused many wars but has served at the same time to spread European ideas throughout the world.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the development of Italian towns during the Hundred Years' War. How was Italy divided in the fourteenth century? Give a picture of Venice at the height of her power. Describe the Italian despots. Describe Florence under the rule of the Medici. Give an account of the rebuilding of Rome. Describe St. Peter's and the Vatican Palace.

II. Give a brief account of Renaissance art in Italy.

III. What geographical discoveries were made before 1500? What effects did explorations of this period have on commerce? What important part did the spice trade play in the exploration of the globe? What led Columbus to try to reach the Indies by sailing westward?

BOOK VI. THE PROTESTANT REVOLT AND THE WARS OF RELIGION

CHAPTER XXIV

EMPEROR CHARLES V AND HIS VAST REALMS

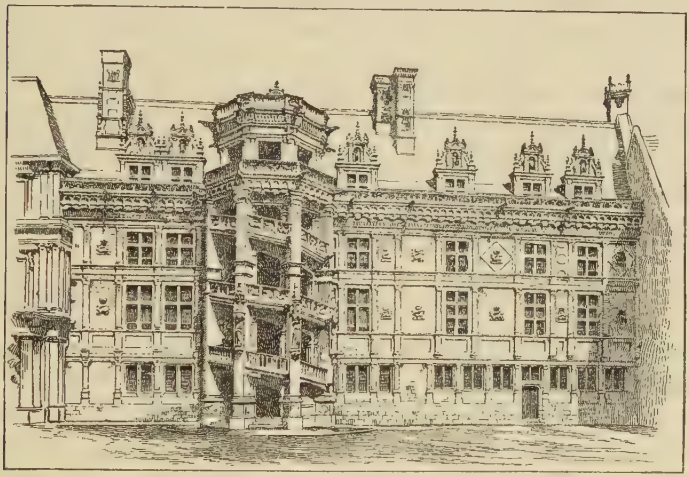
I. How Italy became the Battle Ground of the European Powers

504. Charles VIII of France invades Italy. Louis XI of France, who had done so much to strengthen the kingly power, was succeeded by his son, Charles VIII (1483–1498), who had little of his father's sagacity. Charles dreamed of being a great conqueror, and his first step was to invade Italy on the ground that the kingdom of Naples belonged rightly to his house because of an ancient claim dating back a couple of centuries.

The Italian towns did little to oppose the army of the French king, and he actually got control of Naples for a short time. The ruler of Naples was a Spanish monarch, Ferdinand of Aragon, who had no more right to it than Charles. Charles's troops, however, became demoralized by the excellent wines and other pleasures of southern Italy, his enemies began to combine against him, and he was glad to escape with the loss of only a single battle from the land he had hoped to conquer. He died three years later, but the results of his seemingly foolish expedition were very important.

505. Results of the Expedition of Charles VIII. In the first place, it was clear that the Italian towns did not constitute a nation which would combine to repulse invaders. From this time on, therefore, France, Spain, Austria, and the German emperors undertook successive expeditions with the object of bringing

various portions of the Italian peninsula under their sway. Spain and Austria were particularly successful in this, and Italy remained largely under foreign rule down to the latter part of the



COURT OF THE PALACE AT BLOIS

The expedition of Charles VIII to Italy called the attention of French architects to the beautiful Renaissance style used there. As cannon had by this time begun to render the old kind of castles with thick walls and towers useless as a means of defense, the French kings began to construct magnificent palaces, of which this is an excellent example

nineteenth century, when it was unified under a single ruler and finally became the independent nation it is today.

506. Spread of Italian Art. In the second place, the French learned to admire the art and culture of Italy. The nobles began to change their feudal castles, which since the invention of gunpowder were no longer impregnable, into luxurious palaces and country houses. The new scholarship of Italy also took root and flourished not only in France but in England and Germany as well, and Greek began to be studied outside of Italy. Consequently, just as Italy was becoming, politically, the victim of foreign aggressions, it was also losing, never to regain, that

intellectual leadership which it had enjoyed since the revival of interest in Latin and Greek literature—the so-called Renaissance, spoken of above (§§ 454, 485).

507. Francis I. Francis I, who came to the French throne in 1515, at the age of twenty, is one of the most famous of the French kings. He was gracious and chivalrous in his ideas of conduct, and his proudest title was "the gentleman king." Like his contemporaries Pope Leo X, son of Lorenzo de' Medici, and Henry VIII of England, he helped artists and men of letters and was interested in fine buildings, of which a striking example is shown on the preceding page.

II. How Spain became a Great European Power

508. Arab Civilization in Spain. The Mohammedan conquest served to make the history of Spain very different from that of the other states of Europe (§§ 306–307). One of its first and most important results was the conversion of a great part of the inhabitants to Mohammedanism. During the tenth century, which was so dark a period in the rest of Europe, the Arab civilization in Spain reached its highest development and exercised its influence on Christian Europe to the north. Cordova, with its half million of inhabitants, its stately palaces, its university, its three thousand mosques, and its three hundred public baths, was perhaps unrivaled at that period in the whole world.

509. The Rise of New Christian Kingdoms in Spain. But the Christians were destined to reconquer the peninsula. As early as the year 1000 (see map, p. 220) several small Christian kingdoms—Castile, Aragon, and Navarre—had come into existence in the northern part of Spain. Castile, in particular, began to push back the Mohammedans and, in 1085, reconquered Toledo from them. By 1250, the long war of the Christians against the Mohammedans, which fills the medieval annals of Spain, had been so successfully prosecuted that Castile extended to the south coast and included the great towns of Cordova and Seville. The Christian kingdom of Portugal was already as large as it is today.

The Moors, as the Spanish Mohammedans were called, held out for two centuries more in the mountainous kingdom of Granada, in the southern part of the peninsula. Not until 1492, after a long siege, did the Christians capture the city of Granada and the last vestige of Mohammedan rule in the Spanish peninsula disappear.

510. Spain becomes a European Power. The first Spanish monarch whose name need be mentioned here was Queen Isabella of Castile, who, in 1469, concluded an all-important marriage with Ferdinand, the heir of the crown of Aragon. It is with this union of Castile and Aragon that the great importance of Spain in European history begins. For the next hundred years Spain was to enjoy more military power than any other of the European states.

In the same year that the conquest of the peninsula was completed, the discoveries of Columbus, made under the auspices of Queen Isabella, opened up sources of undreamed-of wealth beyond the seas. The greatness of Spain in the sixteenth century was largely due to the riches derived from her American possessions. The shameless and cruel looting of the Mexican and Peruvian cities by Cortes and Pizarro, and the silver mines of the New World (§§ 501, 503), enabled Spain to assume, for a time, a position in Europe which her ordinary resources and the productions of her own population would never have permitted.

511. Revival of the Inquisition. Unfortunately, the most industrious, skillful, and thrifty among the inhabitants of Spain—that is, the Moors and the Jews, who well-nigh supported the whole kingdom by their toil—were bitterly persecuted by the Christians. So anxious was Isabella to rid her kingdom of the infidels that she revived the court of the Inquisition, of which an account was given above (§ 399). For several decades these Church courts arrested and condemned innumerable persons who were suspected of heresy, and thousands were burned at the stake during this period. These wholesale executions have served to associate Spain especially with the horrors of the Inquisition.

III. The Empire of the Hapsburgs under Charles V

512. Charles V's Empire. In the year 1500 a baby was born in the town of Ghent who was destined before he reached the age of twenty to rule, as Emperor Charles V, over more of Europe than anyone since Charlemagne. He owed his vast empire not to any conquests of his own but to an extraordinary series of royal marriages which made him heir to a great part of western Europe. These marriages had been arranged by his grandfather, Maximilian I, of the House of Hapsburg. In order to understand European history since 1500 we must learn something of Maximilian and the Hapsburg line.

513. Reasons why the German Kings failed to establish a Strong State. The German kings had failed to create a strong kingdom such as that over which Louis XI of France or Henry VII of England ruled. Their fine title of emperor had made them a great deal of trouble and done them no good, as we have seen (§§ 345, 346, 356, 357). Their attempts to keep Italy as well as Germany under their power, and the alliance of the mighty bishop of Rome with their enemies, had well-nigh ruined them. Their position was further weakened by the fact that their office was not strictly hereditary. Although the emperors were often succeeded by their sons, each new emperor had to be *elected*, and those great vassals who controlled the election naturally took care to bind the candidate by solemn promises not to interfere with their privileges and independence. The result was that after the downfall of the Hohenstaufens Germany fell apart into a great number of practically independent states, of which none were very large and some were extremely small.

514. The "Germanies" of the Sixteenth Century. In the sixteenth century there was no such Germany as that which precipitated the World War in 1914, but only what the French called the "Germanies"; that is, two or three hundred states, which differed greatly from one another in size and character. This one had a duke, that a count, at its head, while others were ruled over by archbishops, bishops, or abbots. There were many

cities, like Nuremberg, Frankfort, and Cologne, just as independent as the great duchies of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Saxony. Lastly there were the knights, whose possessions might consist of a single strong castle with a wretched village lying at its foot.

The tiny realms of the knights were often insufficient to support them, and they turned to robbery for a living and plundered the merchants and townspeople. It is clear that these states, little and big, being all tangled up with one another, would be sure to have frequent disputes among themselves and be constantly fighting one another. The emperor, as we have seen, was not powerful enough to keep order, and each ruler had to defend himself when he was attacked.

CHARLES V AT THE AGE OF FORTY-EIGHT
(BY TITIAN)

515. The Imperial Title Hereditary in the House of Austria. The dukes of Austria, belonging to the Hapsburg line, were among the most important of the German princes, and the electors had got into the habit of choosing the emperor from that family. So the imperial title became, to all intents and purposes, hereditary in the Hapsburg line. The Hapsburgs were, however, far more interested in adding to their family domains than in advancing the interests of Germany as a whole. Indeed, the Holy Roman

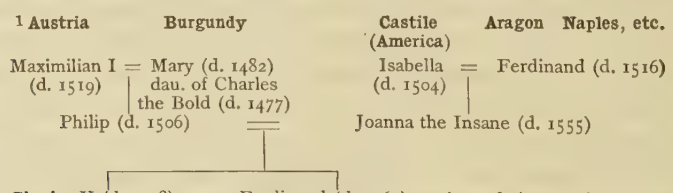
Empire was nearly defunct, and, in the memorable words of Voltaire, it had ceased to be either holy, or Roman, or an empire.

516. Maximilian and the Hapsburg Marriages. While still a very young man, Maximilian I married Mary of Burgundy, the heiress to the Burgundian realms, which included what we now call Holland and Belgium and portions of eastern France. In this way the House of Austria got a hold on the shores of the North Sea. Mary died in 1482, and her lands were inherited by her infant son, Philip. Maximilian's next matrimonial move was to arrange a marriage between the young Philip and the daughter and heiress of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain.

517. Charles and his Possessions. Philip, Maximilian's son, died in 1506,—six years after his eldest son, Charles, was born,—and his poor wife, Joanna, became insane with grief and was thus incapacitated for ruling. So Charles could look forward to an unprecedented accumulation of glorious titles as soon as his grandfathers, Maximilian of Austria and Ferdinand of Aragon, should pass away.[1] He was soon to be duke of Brabant, margrave of Antwerp, count of Holland, archduke of Austria, count of Tyrol, king of Castile, Aragon, and Naples,[2] and of the vast Spanish possessions in America—to mention a few of his more important titles.

On the death of his grandfather Ferdinand of Aragon, Charles, a boy of sixteen, became the first "King of Spain," and many were his difficulties in controlling the formerly independent monarchies of which Spain had been built up.

518. Charles elected Emperor (1519). But still further and more perplexing problems were to face Charles before he was



[2] Naples and Sicily were in the hands of the king of Aragon at this time.

25°
20°
15°
10°
5°
0°
5°
10°
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
BAY OF BISCAY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SHETLAND IS.
ORKNEY IS.
HEBRIDES IS.
Bergen
Aberdeen
Edinburgh
Glasgow
IRELAND
Dublin
Waterford
Cork
ENGLAND
Gloucester
Severn
Oxford
London
Cherbourg
Calais
Brest
BRETAGNE
NORMANDY
Paris
Orleans
Loire
Nantes
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Lyons
Rhone
DAUPHINY
Avigdon
PROVENCE
Toulon
Nice
Genoa
Florence
Siena
Rome
Naples
Hamburg
Bremen
Elbe
Magdeburg
Wittenberg
Leipzig
Cologne
Aix-la-Chapelle
Spires
Frankfort
Strasburg
Augsburg
Salzburg
TYROL
SWISS CONFEDERATION
BURGUNDY
Milan
VENICE
Turin
Ravenna
Ancona
Verona
Trieste
Venice
Padua
Vicenza
Bologna
Modena
Parma
Mantua
Pisa
Lucca
Leghorn
Sienna
CORSICA (To Genoa)
SARDINIA (To Arragon)
Cagliari
Palermo
MALTA
Algiers
Oran
Tunis
KM. OF FEZ
KM. OF TUSCANY
KM. OF SPAIN
KM. OF ARRAGON
KM. OF CASTILE
KM. OF PORTUGAL
KM. OF SICILY
KM. OF NAPLES
KM. OF SAVOY
KM. OF SWABIA
KM. OF BAVARIA
KM. OF SAXONY
KM. OF BRANDENBURG
KM. OF DENMARK
KM. OF NORWAY
JUTLAND
SCHLESWIG
EMPIRE
GERMANY
S. Jago
Oporto
Coimbra
Lisbon
Oviedo
Leon
Burgos
Braganza
Douro
Toledo
Madrid
Tagus
Alcantara
Sarragossa
Ebro
Navarre
Tortosa
Barcelona
Valencia
Cordova
Palos
Seville
Granada
Cadiz
Malaga
Gibraltar
Ceuta
MAJORCA
MINORCA
IVIZA
BALEARIC I.
Longitude 5° West from Greenwich 0°
5°
10°
15°

15° 20° 25° 30° 35° 40° 45° 50° 55° 60°
65°
60°
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
MUSCOVITE EMPIRE
RUSSIA
KHANATE OF KAZAN
KHANATE OF THE CRIMEA
SEVERIA
UKRAINE
Terr. of the Cossacks
GRAND DUCHY OF LITHUANIA
POLAND
PRUSSIA
TEUTONIC ORDER
BALTIC SEA
SWEDEN
FINLAND
GOTHLAND
Stockholm
Moscow
Smolensk
Brestau
VEDISON
SEA OF AZOF
TURCOMANNESSIA (Circassia)
GEORGIA
ARMENIA
PERSIA
BLACK SEA
Sinope
Trebizond
MOLDAVIA
BESSARABIA
WALLACHIA
Danube
Nicopolis
BULGARIA
SERVIA
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Constantinople
Brousa
MACEDONIA
ALBANIA
CORFU
CEPHALONIA
ZANTE
Athens
MOREA
Smyrna
RHODES
CANDIA
SEA
EUROPE
about the middle of the
SIXTEENTH CENTURY
Hapsburg Possessions
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
East 20° from Greenwich 25° 30° 35° 40°

CHAPTER XXV

MARTIN LUTHER AND THE REVOLT OF GERMANY AGAINST THE PAPACY

I. The Question of Reforming the Church; Erasmus

520. Break-up of the Medieval Church into Catholics and Protestants. By far the most important event during the reign of Charles V was the revolt of a considerable portion of western Europe against the popes. The medieval Church, which was described in a previous chapter, was in this way broken up, and *Protestant* churches appeared in various European countries which declared themselves entirely independent of the Pope and rejected a number of the religious beliefs which the medieval Church had taught.

With the exception of England all those countries that lay within the ancient bounds of the Roman Empire—Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, as well as southern Germany and Austria—continued to be faithful to the Pope and the Roman Catholic Church. On the other hand, the rulers of the northern German states, of England, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden sooner or later became Protestants. In this way Europe was divided into two great religious parties, and this led to terrible wars and cruel persecutions, which fill the annals of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

521. Sources of Discontent with the Church. The revolt began in Germany. The Germans were at this time still good Catholics and accepted all the beliefs of the Church, but they were seriously troubled by the fact that the popes were so frequently Italians and that the amount of church contributions collected in Germany was so large. Great German prelates, like the archbishops of Mayence, Treves, and Cologne, contributed generously

to the papal treasury upon having their election confirmed by the Church authorities at Rome. The Pope enjoyed the right to fill the important church offices in Germany and sometimes appointed Italians, who received the revenue without going to Germany or performing the duties attached to the office. One person often held several church offices.

At first, however, no one thought of withdrawing from the Church or of attempting to destroy the power of the Pope. All that the Germans wanted was that the contributions which flowed toward Rome should be lessened, and that the clergy should be upright, earnest men who should conscientiously perform their religious duties.

522. Erasmus (1465–1536). Among the critics of the Church in the early days of Charles V's reign the most famous and influential was Erasmus. He was a Dutchman by birth, but spent his life in various other countries—France, England, Italy, and Germany. He was a citizen of the world and in correspondence with literary men everywhere, so that his letters give us an excellent idea of the feeling of the times. He was greatly interested in the Greek and Latin authors, but his main purpose in life was to make people more intelligent, especially in religious matters.

One of his best-known books was his *Praise of Folly*, in which he held up to ridicule many of the practices and popular beliefs which Luther later attacked. He believed that superstition would certainly disappear as people became better educated. It seemed to Erasmus that if everybody could read the Bible, especially the New Testament, for himself, it would be a great advantage.

Erasmus believed, moreover, that the time was favorable for reform. As he looked about him he beheld intelligent rulers on the thrones of Europe, men interested in books and art and ready to help scholars and writers. There were Henry VIII of England and Francis I of France. Then the Pope himself, Leo X, the son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, was a friend and admirer of Erasmus and doubtless sympathized with many of his views. The youthful Charles V was a devout Catholic, but he too agreed

that there were many evils to be remedied. So it seemed to Erasmus that the prospects were excellent for a peaceful reform; but, instead of its coming, his latter years were embittered by Luther's revolt and all the ill-feelings and dissensions that it created.

II. Martin Luther and his Teachings

523. Early Years of Luther. Martin Luther was born in 1483. He was the son of a poor miner. His father, however, was determined that his son should be a lawyer, and so Martin was sent to the University of Erfurt. After he finished his college course and was about to take up the study of the law he suddenly decided to become a monk.

He was much worried about his soul and feared that nothing he could do would save him from hell. He finally found comfort in the thought that in order to be saved he had only to *believe* sincerely that God would save him, and that he could not possibly save himself by *trying to be good*. He gained the respect of the head of the monastery, and when Frederick the Wise of Saxony was looking about for teachers for his new university at Wittenberg, Luther was recommended as a good person to teach Aristotle; so he became a professor.

As time went on Luther began to be suspicious of some of the things that were taught in the university. He finally decided that Aristotle was, after all, only an ancient heathen who knew nothing about Christianity, and that the students had no business to study his works. He urged them to rely instead upon the Bible.

524. Justification by Faith. Luther's main point was that man was so corrupt that he could do nothing pleasing to God. He could only repent his sins and have *faith* in God's promises. It was this faith that *justified* the repentant sinner in God's sight. So Luther came to regard the "good works" recommended by the Church—such as the frequent attendance at Mass, the repetition of prayers, pilgrimages, and the veneration of relics—as unnecessary for salvation and sometimes misleading.

LUTHER AS A MONK. (BY CRANACH, 1520)

None of the portraits of Luther are very satisfactory. His friend Cranach was not, like Holbein the Younger, a great portrait painter. This cut shows the reformer when his revolt against the Church was just beginning. He was thirty-seven years old and still in the dress of an Augustinian friar, which he soon abandoned

PORTRAIT OF ERASMUS. (BY HOLBEIN)

This wonderful picture by Hans Holbein the Younger (1497–1543) hangs in the Louvre gallery at Paris. We have every reason to suppose that it is an excellent portrait, for Holbein lived in Basel a considerable part of his life and knew Erasmus well. The artist was, moreover, celebrated for his skill in catching the likeness when depicting the human face. He later painted several well-known Englishmen, including Henry VIII and his little son, Edward VI

Luther's teachings did not attract much attention until the year 1517, when he was thirty-four years old. Then something occurred to give him considerable prominence.

525. Luther's Theses on Indulgences (1517). The fact has already been mentioned that the popes had undertaken the rebuilding of St. Peter's, the great central church of Christendom (§§ 491–492). The cost of the enterprise was very great, and in order to collect contributions for the purpose Pope Leo X arranged for an extensive distribution of *indulgences*[1] in Germany.

In October, 1517, Tetzel, a Dominican monk, began preaching indulgences in the neighborhood of Wittenberg and making claims for them which appeared to Luther irreconcilable with Christianity as he understood it. He therefore, in accordance with the custom of the time, wrote out a series of ninety-five statements in regard to indulgences. These *theses*, as they were called, he posted on the church door and invited anyone interested in the matter to enter into a discussion with him on the subject. Luther did not intend to attack the Church and had no expectation of creating a sensation. The theses were in Latin and addressed, therefore, only to learned men.

526. Luther's *Address to the German Nobility* (1520). Of Luther's popular pamphlets the first really famous one was his *Address to the German Nobility*, in which he calls upon the rulers of Germany, especially the knights, to carry out a reform of the Church, since he believed that it was vain to wait for the popes and bishops to do so. Luther denied that there was anything so sacred about a clergyman that he could not be dismissed by a ruler if he did not properly perform his holy duties. Luther

[1] An indulgence was a pardon, issued usually by the Pope himself, which freed the person to whom it was granted *from a part or all of his suffering in purgatory*. It did not forgive his sins or in any way take the place of true repentance and confession; it only reduced the punishment which a truly contrite sinner would otherwise have had to endure, either in this world or in purgatory, before he could be admitted to heaven.

It is a common mistake of Protestants to suppose that the indulgence was forgiveness granted beforehand for sins to be committed in the future. There is absolutely no foundation for this idea. A person proposing to sin could not possibly be contrite in the eyes of the Church, and even if he had secured an indulgence, it would, according to the theologians, have been quite worthless.

claimed, moreover, that it was the right and duty of the rulers to punish a churchman who did wrong just as if he were the humblest layman.

The *Address to the German Nobility* closed with a long list of evils which must be done away with before Germany could become prosperous. Luther saw that his view of religion really implied a social revolution. He advocated reducing the monasteries to a tenth of their number and permitting those monks who were disappointed in the good they got from living in them freely to leave. He pointed out the evils of pilgrimages and of the numerous church holidays, which interfered with daily work. The clergy, he urged, should be permitted to marry and have families like other citizens. The universities should be reformed and "the accursed heathen, Aristotle," should be cast out from them.

527. Luther Excommunicated; Burning of the Papal Bull (1520). Luther had long expected to be excommunicated for his criticisms of the beliefs of the Church. But it was not until the autumn of 1520 that a papal bull or decree arrived condemning many of Luther's assertions as heretical and giving him sixty days to recant. The bull irritated many of the German rulers, who were quite willing to have a reformer bold enough to denounce evils which they themselves realized well enough. Some of the princes and universities published it, but in many cases it was ignored, and Luther's own ruler, the elector of Saxony, continued to protect his professor.

Luther decided that he must make a public protest, and so he summoned his students to witness what he called "a pious religious spectacle." He had a fire built outside the walls of Wittenberg and cast into it Leo X's bull condemning him, and a copy of the Laws of the Church, together with a volume of scholastic theology which he specially disliked.

Yet Luther dreaded disorder. He was certainly sometimes reckless and violent in his writings and often said that bloodshed could not be avoided. Yet he always opposed hasty reform. He was reluctant to make changes, except in belief. He held that so long as an institution did not actually mislead, it did no harm.

528. Luther summoned to the Diet at Worms (1521). When Charles V arrived in Germany to hold his first diet in 1520, the case of Luther was called to his attention by the papal representative, who exhorted him to outlaw the heretic without further delay. While Charles seemed convinced of Luther's guilt, he could not proceed against him without serious danger. The monk had become a sort of national hero and had the support of the powerful elector of Saxony. Other princes, who had ordinarily no wish to protect a heretic, felt that Luther's denunciation of the evils in the Church was very gratifying. After much discussion it was finally arranged that Luther should be summoned to Worms and be given an opportunity to face the representatives of the German nation and the emperor and to declare plainly whether he was the author of the heretical books ascribed to him and whether he still clung to the views the Pope had condemned.

529. Luther's Defense. It was not proposed to give Luther any opportunity to defend his beliefs before the diet. He was simply asked whether a pile of Latin and German books and pamphlets placed before him were really his work and whether he would recant what he had written. He confessed that the volumes were his and admitted that his attacks had been overviolent at times. He said, however, that he believed no one could deny that decrees issued in the name of the Pope had sometimes gone against the conscience of good Christians and that the German people in particular had been plundered by church officials. If arguments from the Bible could be found to refute his statements he would gladly recant, but as things stood he could not do otherwise than he was doing.

530. The Edict of Worms (1521). There was now nothing for the emperor to do but to outlaw Luther, who had denied the binding character of the commands of the head of the Church.

The Edict of Worms declared Luther an outlaw on the following grounds: that he scorned and vilified the Pope, despised the priesthood and stirred up the laity to dip their hands in the blood of the clergy, denied free will, taught licentiousness, despised authority, advocated a brutish existence, and was a menace to

Church and State alike. Everyone was forbidden to read or publish Luther's works or to give the heretic food, drink, or shelter. Moreover, he was to be seized and delivered to the emperor.

So general was the disapproval of the edict that few were willing to pay any attention to it. Charles V immediately left Germany and for nearly ten years was occupied with the government of Spain and a succession of wars.

III. The Revolt against the Papacy begins in Germany

531. Luther begins a New Translation of the Bible. As Luther neared Eisenach upon his way home from Worms he was kidnaped by his friends and conducted to the Wartburg, a castle belonging to the elector of Saxony. Here he was concealed until any danger from the action of the emperor or diet should pass by. His chief occupation during several months of hiding was to begin a new translation of the Bible into German.

532. The Revolt Begins. Hitherto there had been a great deal of talk of reform, but as yet nothing had actually been done. There was no sharp line drawn between the different classes of reformers. All agreed that something should be done to better the Church; few realized how divergent were the real ends in view. The rulers listened to Luther because they were glad of an excuse to get control of the Church property and its revenues. The peasants listened because he put the Bible into their hands and they found nothing there that proved that they ought to go on paying the old dues to their lords.

While Luther was quietly living in the Wartburg, translating the Bible, people began to put his teachings into practice. Some of the monks and nuns left their monasteries in his own town of Wittenberg. Some of them married, which seemed—in view of the pledges they had voluntarily taken—a very wicked thing to all those who held to the old beliefs. The students and citizens tore down the images of the saints in the churches and even went so far as to oppose the celebration of the Mass, the chief Catholic sacrament.

Luther was greatly troubled by news of this disorderly reform. He did not approve of sudden and violent changes and left his hiding place to protest. He preached a series of sermons in Wittenberg in which he urged that all alterations in religious services and practices should be introduced by the *government* and not by the *people*. But his advice was not heeded.

533. The Peasant War. In 1525 the serfs rose, in the name of "God's justice," to avenge their wrongs. Luther was not responsible for the civil war which followed, though he had certainly helped to stir up discontent. Some of the demands of the peasants were perfectly reasonable. The most popular expression of their needs was the dignified "Twelve Articles." In these they claimed that the Bible did not sanction any of the dues which the lords demanded of them, and that, since they were Christians like their lords, they should no longer be held as serfs.

There were, however, leaders who were more violent and who proposed to kill the "godless" priests and nobles. Hundreds of castles and monasteries were destroyed by the frantic peasantry, and some of the nobility were murdered with shocking cruelty. Luther tried to induce the peasants, with whom, as the son of a peasant, he was at first inclined to sympathize, to remain quiet; but when his warnings proved vain he turned against them. He declared that they were guilty of the most fearful crimes and urged the government to put down the insurrection without pity.

534. Cruel Suppression of the Peasant Revolt. Luther's advice was followed with terrible exactness by the German rulers, and the nobility took fearful revenge on the peasants. In the summer of 1525 their chief leader was defeated and killed, and it is estimated that ten thousand peasants were put to death, many with the utmost cruelty. Few of the rulers or landlords introduced any reforms, and the misfortunes due to the destruction of property and to the despair of the peasants cannot be imagined. The old exactions of the lords of the manors were in no way lightened, and the situation of the serfs for centuries following the great revolt was worse rather than better.

IV. Division of Germany into Catholic and Protestant Countries

535. Religious Division of North and South Germany. Charles V was occupied at this time by his quarrels with Francis I, and was in no position to return to Germany and undertake to enforce the Edict of Worms against Luther and his followers. Germany, as we have seen, was divided into hundreds of practically independent countries, and the various electors, princes, towns, and knights naturally could not agree as to what could best be done in the matter of reforming the Church. Southern Germany decided for the Pope and remains Catholic down to the present day. Many of the Northern rulers, on the other hand, adopted the new teachings, and finally all of them fell away from the papacy and became Protestant.

Since there was no one powerful enough to decide the great question for the whole of Germany, the diet which met at Speyer in 1526 determined that pending the summoning of a Church council each ruler should "so live, reign, and conduct himself as he would be willing to answer before God and His Imperial Majesty." For the moment, then, the various German governments were left to determine the religion of their subjects.

536. Origin of the Term "Protestants." The emperor, Charles V, commanded the diet, which again met at Speyer in 1529, to order the enforcement of the Edict of Worms against the heretics.

The princes and towns that had accepted Luther's ideas drew up a *protest*, in which they claimed that the majority had no right to abrogate the edict of the former diet of Speyer, which had been passed unanimously and which all had solemnly pledged themselves to observe. Those who signed this appeal were called from their action *Protestants*. Thus originated the name which came to be generally applied to those who do not accept the rule and teachings of the Roman Catholic Church.

537. Diet at Augsburg and the Augsburg Confession. Ever since the diet at Worms the emperor had resided in Spain,

busied with a succession of wars carried on with the king of France. But in 1530 he found himself at peace for the moment, and came to Germany to hold a brilliant diet of his German subjects at Augsburg, in the hope of settling the religious problem, which, however, he understood very imperfectly. He ordered the Protestants to draw up a statement of exactly what they believed, which should serve as a basis for discussion. Melanchthon, Luther's most famous friend and colleague, was intrusted with this delicate task.

The *Augsburg Confession*, as his declaration was called, is a historical document of great importance. Melanchthon's gentle disposition led him to make the differences between his belief and that of the old Church seem as few and slight as possible. He showed that both parties held the same fundamental views of Christianity. But he defended the rejection on the part of the Protestants of a number of the practices of the Roman Catholics, such as the celibacy of the clergy and the observance of fast days.

538. Charles V's Attempt at Pacification. Certain theologians who had been loud in their denunciations of Luther were ordered by the emperor to prepare a refutation of the Protestant views. Charles V declared the Catholic statement to be "Christian and judicious" and commanded the Protestants to accept it. They were to cease troubling the Catholics and were to give back all the monasteries and Church property which they had seized. The emperor agreed, however, to urge the Pope to call a council to meet within a year. This, he hoped, would be able to settle all differences and reform the Church according to the views of the more liberal Catholics.

539. The Peace of Augsburg (1555). For ten years after the emperor left Augsburg he was kept busy in southern Europe by new wars. In order to secure the assistance of the Protestants he was forced to let them go their own way. Meanwhile the number of rulers who accepted Luther's teachings gradually increased. Finally, there was a brief war between Charles and the Protestant princes, but there was little fighting.

In 1555 the religious Peace of Augsburg was arranged. Its provisions are memorable. Each German prince and each town and knight directly under the emperor was to be at liberty to make a choice between the beliefs of the venerable Catholic Church and those embodied in the Augsburg Confession. If, however, an ecclesiastical prince—an archbishop, bishop, or abbot—declared himself a Protestant, he must surrender his possessions to the Church. Every German was either to conform to the religious practices of his particular state or emigrate from it. Everyone was supposed to be either a Catholic or a Lutheran, and no provision was made for any other belief.

540. No Freedom of Conscience. It is noteworthy that this religious peace in no way established freedom of conscience in religious matters, except for the *rulers*. The arrangement which permitted the various princes to determine the religion of their subjects was far more natural in those days than it would be in ours, for the Church and the State had been closely associated since the last centuries of the Roman Empire. No one as yet dreamed that it was possible to leave people to make up their own minds on religious matters without interference on the part of the government.

QUESTIONS

I. What dissatisfactions with the Church grew up among the German Catholics? Contrast Erasmus's ideas of reform with those of Luther.

II. Tell something of Luther's early life. How did Luther's theory of salvation differ from the orthodox view? What were the famous theses of Luther? How did they differ in their appeal from his *Address to the German Nobility*? On what grounds was Luther excommunicated? What was Luther's defense at Worms?

III. Describe some of the ways in which the revolt began. What was the Peasant War? How was it put down?

IV. What is the origin of the term "Protestants"? How was Germany divided on the religious question? What was the *Augsburg Confession*? What were the provisions of the Peace of Augsburg? What were its limitations?

CHAPTER XXVI

THE PROTESTANT REVOLT IN SWITZERLAND AND ENGLAND

I. Zwingli and Calvin

541. Origin of the Swiss Confederation. For at least a century after Luther's death the great issue between Catholics and Protestants dominates the history of all the countries with which we have to do, except Italy and Spain, where Protestantism never took permanent root. In Switzerland, England, France, and Holland the revolt against the medieval Church produced discord, wars, and profound changes, which must be understood in order to follow the later development of these countries.

We turn first to Switzerland, lying in the midst of the great chain of the Alps which extends from the Mediterranean to Vienna. During the Middle Ages the region destined to be included in the Swiss Confederation formed a part of the Holy Roman Empire and was scarcely distinguishable from the rest of southern Germany. As early as the thirteenth century the three "forest" cantons on the shores of the winding Lake of Lucern formed a union to protect their liberties against the encroachments of their neighbors the Hapsburgs. It was about this tiny nucleus that Switzerland gradually consolidated. Lucern and the free towns of Zurich and Bern soon joined the Swiss league. By brave fighting, the Swiss were able to frustrate the renewed efforts of the Hapsburgs to subjugate them.

Various districts in the neighborhood joined the Swiss union in succession, and even the region lying on the Italian slopes of the Alps was brought under its control. Gradually the bonds between the members of the Swiss union and the Empire were

broken. In 1499 they were finally freed from the jurisdiction of the emperor, and Switzerland became a practically independent country. Although the original union had been made up of German-speaking people, considerable districts had been annexed

THE SWISS CONFEDERATION IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

in which Italian or French was spoken.[1] The Swiss did not, therefore, form a compact, well-defined nation, and consequently for some centuries their confederation was weak and ill-organized.

542. Zwingli leads Revolt against the Old Church. In Switzerland the first leader of the revolt against the Church was a young priest named Zwingli, who was a year younger than Luther. He lived in the famous monastery of Einsiedln, near

[1] This condition has not changed; all Swiss laws are still proclaimed in three languages.

the Lake of Zurich, which was the center of pilgrimages on account of a wonder-working image. "Here," he says, "I began to preach the Gospel of Christ in the year 1516, before anyone in my locality had so much as heard the name of Luther."

But the original cantons about the Lake of Lucern, which feared that they might lose the great influence that, in spite of their small size, they had hitherto enjoyed, were ready to fight for the old faith. The first armed collision between the Swiss Protestants and Catholics took place at Kappel in 1531, and Zwingli fell in the battle. The various cantons and towns never came to an agreement in religious matters, and Switzerland is still part Catholic and part Protestant.

543. Calvin (1509–1564) and the Presbyterian Church. Far more important than Zwingli's teachings, especially for England and America, was the work of Calvin, which was carried on in the ancient city of Geneva, on the very outskirts of the Swiss Confederation. It was Calvin who organized the *Presbyterian Church* and formulated its beliefs. Born in northern France in 1509, he belonged to the second generation of Protestants. He was early influenced by the Lutheran teachings, which had already found their way into France. A persecution of the Protestants under Francis I drove him out of the country. At Basel he issued his great work, *The Institute of Christianity*. It was the first orderly exposition of the principles of Christianity from a Protestant standpoint and formed a convenient manual for study and discussion.

Calvin was called to Geneva about 1540 and intrusted with the task of reforming the town, which had secured its independence of the duke of Savoy. Calvin intrusted the management of church affairs to the ministers and the elders, or *presbyters*; hence the name "Presbyterian." The Protestantism which found its way into France was that of Calvin, not that of Luther, and the same may be said of Scotland (§ 575).

II. How England fell away from the Papacy

544. Wolsey's Idea of the Balance of Power. Henry VIII came to the English throne when he was eighteen years old. His chief adviser, Cardinal Wolsey, deserves great credit for having constantly striven to discourage his sovereign's ambition to take part in the wars on the Continent. The argument of the cardinal that England could become great by peace better than by war was a momentous discovery. Peace, he felt, would be best secured by maintaining the *balance of power* on the Continent, so that no ruler should become dangerous by unduly extending his sway. This idea of the balance of power came to be recognized later by the European countries as a very important consideration in determining their policy. But Wolsey was not long to be permitted to put his enlightened ideas into practice.

Henry VIII

545. Henry VIII's Divorce Case. Henry had married Catherine of Aragon, the aunt of Charles V. Only one of their children, Mary, survived to grow up. As time went on Henry was very anxious to have a son and heir, for he was fearful lest a woman might not be permitted to succeed to the throne. Moreover, he had tired of Catherine, who was considerably older than he. His anxiety to rid himself of Catherine was greatly

increased by the appearance at court of a black-eyed girl of sixteen, named Anne Boleyn, with whom the king fell in love.

Wolsey's failure to persuade the Pope to permit a divorce excited the king's anger, and, with rank ingratitude for his minister's great services, Henry drove him from office (1529) and seized his property. From a life of wealth which was fairly royal, Wolsey was precipitated into extreme poverty and soon died.

Henry induced Parliament to cut off some of the Pope's revenue from England, but as this did not persuade Clement VII to grant the divorce, Henry lost patience and secretly married Anne Boleyn, relying on getting a divorce from Catherine later.

Parliament, which did whatever Henry VIII asked, declared Henry's marriage with Catherine unlawful and that with Anne Boleyn legal.

546. How Henry VIII threw off the Papal Authority. In 1534 the English Parliament completed the revolt of the English Church from the Pope by assigning to the king the right to appoint all the English prelates, and to enjoy all the revenues of the Church. In the Act of Supremacy Parliament declared the king to be "the only supreme head in earth of the Church of England," and that he should enjoy all the powers which the title naturally carried with it.

547. Henry VIII no Protestant. It must be carefully observed that Henry VIII was not a Protestant in the Lutheran sense of the word. He was led, it is true, by Clement VII's refusal to declare his first marriage illegal, to break the bond between the English and the Roman Church and to induce the English clergy and Parliament to acknowledge the king as supreme head in the religious, as well as in the worldly, interests of the country. Important as this was, it did not lead Henry to accept the teachings of Protestant leaders, like Luther, Zwingli, or Calvin, and he cruelly persecuted some of their followers.

Henry, however, authorized a new translation of the Bible into English. A fine edition of this was printed (1539), and every parish was ordered to obtain a copy and place it in the parish church, where all the people could readily make use of it.

548. Dissolution of the English Monasteries. Henry wanted money; some of the English abbeys were rich, and the monks were quite unable to defend themselves against the charges which were brought against them. A large number of scandalous tales were easily collected by Henry's agents, some of which may have been true. The monks were sometimes indolent and sometimes violated their pledges to lead a good life. Nevertheless as a body they were kind landlords, hospitable to the stranger, and good to the poor.

EDWARD VI. (BY HOLBEIN)

This interesting sketch was made before Edward became king; he could have been scarcely six years old, as Holbein died in 1543

The royal commissioners took possession of the monasteries and their lands and sold every article upon which they could lay hands, including the bells and even the lead on the roofs. The picturesque remains of some of the great abbey churches are still among the chief objects of interest to the sight-seer in England.

549. Henry VIII's Third Marriage and the Birth of Edward VI. Henry's family troubles by no means came to an end with his marriage to Anne Boleyn. Of her too he soon tired, and three years after their marriage he had her executed on a series of monstrous charges. The very next day he married his third wife, Jane Seymour, who was the mother of his son and successor, Edward VI. It was arranged that should Edward die leaving no heirs to the throne he should be succeeded by Mary, Henry's daughter by his first wife, Catherine, and that Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, should be next in line of succession. Henry's death in 1547 left the great problem of Protestantism and Catholicism to be settled by his son and daughters.

III. England becomes Protestant

550. Edward VI's Ministers introduce Protestant Practices. While the revolt of England against the papacy was carried through by the government at a time when the greater part of the nation was still Catholic, there was undoubtedly, under Henry VIII, an ever-increasing number of aggressive and ardent Protestants who approved the change. During the six years of the boy Edward's reign—he died in 1553 at the age of sixteen—those in charge of the government favored the Protestant party and did what they could to change the faith of the people by bringing Protestant teachers from the Continent.

A general destruction of all the sacred images was ordered; even the beautiful stained glass, the glory of the cathedrals, was demolished, because it often represented saints and angels. The king was to appoint bishops, and Protestants began to be put into the high offices of the Church. Parliament decreed that thereafter the clergy should be free to marry.

551. Queen Mary (1553–1558) and the Catholic Restoration. Edward VI was succeeded in 1553 by his half sister Mary, the daughter of Catherine, who had been brought up in the Catholic faith and held firmly to it. Her ardent hope of bringing her kingdom back once more to her religion did not seem altogether ill-founded, for the majority of the people were still Catholics at heart, and many who were not Catholics disapproved of the policy of Edward's ministers, who had removed abuses "in the devil's own way, by breaking in pieces."

The Catholic cause appeared, moreover, to be strengthened by Mary's marriage with the Spanish prince, Philip II, the son of the orthodox Charles V. But although Philip later distinguished himself, as we shall see, by the merciless way in which he strove to put down heresy within his own realms, the English took care that he should have no hand in the government nor by any means be permitted to succeed his wife on the English throne.

Mary succeeded in bringing about a nominal reconciliation between England and the Roman Church. In 1554 the papal legate

restored to the communion of the Catholic Church the "Kneeling" Parliament, which theoretically, of course, represented the nation.

During the last four years of Mary's reign the most serious religious persecution in English history occurred. No less than

QUEEN MARY. (BY ANTONIO MORO)

This lifelike portrait, in the Madrid collection, is by a favorite painter of Philip II, Mary's husband. It was painted about 1554, and one gets the same impressions of Mary's character from the portrait that one does from reading about her

two hundred and seventy-seven persons were put to death for denying the teachings of the Roman Catholic Church. The majority of the victims were humble artisans and husbandmen.

It was Mary's intention and belief that the heretics sent to the stake would furnish a terrible warning to the Protestants and tend to check the spread of the new teachings, but Catholicism was not promoted; on the contrary, doubters were only convinced

of the deep earnestness of the Protestants who could die so bravely for their faith.

The Catholics, in turn, later suffered serious persecution under Elizabeth and James I, the Protestant successors of Mary. Death was the penalty fixed in many cases for those who obstinately refused to recognize the monarch as the rightful head of the English Church, and heavy fines were imposed for the failure to attend Protestant worship. Two hundred Catholic priests are said to have been executed under Elizabeth, Mary's sister, who succeeded her on the throne; others were tortured or perished miserably in prison.

QUESTIONS

I. Give an account of the Swiss Confederation. What part did Zwingli play in the revolt against the Church? Give a brief account of John Calvin.

II. What was the cause of the withdrawal of England from the control of the Pope? How did Henry VIII prove he was not a Protestant? Give an account of the dissolution of the monasteries.

III. Under what ruler did England first become a Protestant country? Give an account of the Catholic restoration under Queen Mary.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE WARS OF RELIGION

I. The Council of Trent; the Jesuits

552. Council of Trent (1545–1563). In the preceding chapters we have seen how northern Germany, England, and portions of Switzerland revolted from the papacy and established independent Protestant churches. A great part of western Europe, however, remained faithful to the Pope and to the old beliefs which had been accepted for so many centuries. In order to consider the important matter of reforming the Catholic Church and to settle disputed questions of religious belief a great Church council was summoned by the Pope to meet in Trent, on the boundary of Germany and Italy, in the year 1545.

The Council of Trent did not complete its work for nearly twenty years. It naturally condemned the Protestant beliefs so far as they differed from the views held by the Catholics, and it sanctioned those doctrines which the Catholic Church still holds. It accepted the Pope as the head of the Church; it declared accursed anyone who, like Luther, believed that man would be saved by faith in God's promises alone, for the Church held that man, with God's help, could increase his hope of salvation by good works. The ancient Latin translation of the Bible—the Vulgate, as it is called—was proclaimed the standard of belief, and no one was to publish any views about the Bible differing from those approved by the Church.

553. The *Index*. At the Council's suggestion the Pope's officials compiled a list of works which Catholics were not to read lest their faith in the doctrines of the Church should be disturbed. Similar lists have been printed since from time to

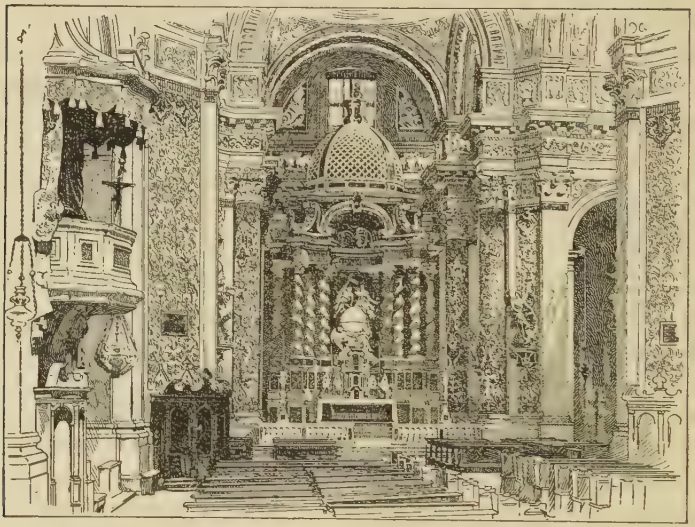
time down to our own day. The establishment of this *Index of Prohibited Books* was one of the Council's most famous acts.

554. Results of the Reform of the Catholic Church. Although the Council of Trent would make no compromises with the Protestants, it took measures to do away with certain evils of which both Protestants and devout Catholics complained. The bishops were ordered to preach regularly and to see that only good men were ordained priests. A great improvement actually took place—better men were placed in office, and many practices which had formerly irritated the people were permanently abolished.

555. Ignatius Loyola (1491–1556). The Catholic Church was further greatly strengthened by the rise of a powerful organization pledged to the support of the Pope and the Catholic teachings. This was the "Society of Jesus," or Jesuits, founded by a Spaniard, Ignatius Loyola. In 1538 he had summoned his followers to Rome, and there he received the sanction of the Pope. Loyola had been a soldier in his younger days and, therefore, laid great stress upon absolute and unquestioning obedience. Not only were all the members of the new association to obey the Pope as Christ's representative on earth, and to undertake without hesitation any journey, no matter how distant or perilous, which he might command, but each was to obey his superiors in the order as if he were receiving directions from Christ in person. The admirable organization and incomparable discipline of this society were the great secret of the later influence of the Jesuits.

556. Activities of the Jesuits. The members were to pledge themselves to lead a pure life of poverty and devotion. A great number of the members were priests, who went about preaching, hearing confession, and encouraging devotional exercises. But the Jesuits were teachers as well as preachers and confessors. They clearly perceived the advantage of bringing young people under their influence; they opened schools and seminaries and soon became the schoolmasters of Catholic Europe. So successful were their methods of instruction that even Protestants sometimes sent their children to their schools.

The Jesuits rapidly spread not only over Europe but throughout the whole world. Francis Xavier, one of Loyola's original little band, went to Hindustan, the Moluccas, and Japan. Brazil, Florida, Mexico, and Peru were soon fields of active missionary work at a time when Protestants as yet scarcely dreamed of



PRINCIPAL JESUIT CHURCH IN VENICE

The Jesuits believed in erecting magnificent churches. This is a good example. The walls are inlaid with green marble in an elaborate pattern, and all the furnishings are very rich and gorgeous

carrying Christianity to the heathen. We owe to the Jesuits' reports much of our knowledge of the condition of America when white men first began to explore Canada and the Mississippi Valley.

557. Accusations brought against the Jesuits. Protestants soon realized that the new order was their most powerful and dangerous enemy. Their apprehensions produced a bitter hatred which blinded them to the high purposes of the founders of the

order and led them to attribute an evil purpose to every act of the Jesuits. They were popularly supposed to justify the most deceitful and immoral measures on the ground that the result would be "for the greater glory of God."[1]

II. Philip II and the Revolt of the Netherlands

558. Division of the Hapsburg Possessions. The chief ally of the Pope and the Jesuits in their efforts to check Protestantism was the son of Emperor Charles V, Philip II of Spain. Charles V, crippled with the gout and old before his time, laid down the cares of government in 1555–1556. To his brother, Ferdinand, who had acquired by marriage the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, Charles had earlier transferred the German possessions of the Hapsburgs. To his son, Philip II (1556–1598), he gave Spain with its great American colonies, Milan, the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and the Netherlands (see table, p. 306 n.).

559. The Netherlands. The Netherlands, which were to cause Philip his first and greatest trouble, included seventeen provinces which Charles V had inherited from his grandmother, Mary of Burgundy (§ 516). They occupied the position on the map where we now find the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium. In the north the hardy Germanic population had been able, by means of dikes which kept out the sea, to reclaim large tracts of lowlands. Here considerable cities had grown up—Harlem, Leyden, Amsterdam, and Rotterdam. To the south were the flourishing towns of Ghent, Bruges, Brussels, and Antwerp, which had for hundreds of years been centers of manufacture and trade.

560. Philip II's Harsh Attitude toward the Netherlands; Alva. Philip did everything to alienate all classes in the Netherlands and to increase their natural hatred and lively suspicion of

[1] As time went on the Jesuits found themselves involved in difficulties with the various European governments, largely because in the eighteenth century they undertook great commercial enterprises, and for this and other reasons lost the confidence of even the Catholics. Convinced that the order had outgrown its usefulness, the Pope abolished it in 1773. It was, however, restored in 1814 and now again has thousands of members.

the Spaniards. What was still worse, he proposed that the Inquisition (§§ 399, 511) should carry on its work far more actively than hitherto and put an end to the heresy which appeared to him to defile his fair realms.

For ten years the people suffered Philip's rule; nevertheless their king, instead of listening to the protests of their leaders, who were quite as earnest Catholics as himself, appeared to be bent on the destruction of the land. So in 1566 some five hundred of the nobles ventured to protest against Philip's policy.

PHILIP II. (BY ANTONIO MORO)

Thereupon Philip took a step which led finally to the revolt of the Netherlands. He decided to put down the rebellion by dispatching to the low countries the remorseless duke of Alva, whose conduct has made his name synonymous with blind and unmeasured cruelty. Alva's administration from 1567 to 1573 and the atrocities of his rough soldiers produced a veritable reign of terror.

561. William of Orange, called the Silent (1534–1584). The Netherlands found a leader in William, Prince of Orange. He is a national hero whose career bears a striking resemblance to that of Washington. Like the American patriot, he undertook the seemingly hopeless task of freeing his people from the oppressive rule of a distant king. To the Spaniards he appeared to be only an impoverished nobleman at the head of a handful of armed peasants and fishermen, contending against the sovereign of the richest realm in the world.

William found his main support in the northern provinces, of which Holland was the chief. The Dutch, who had very generally accepted Protestant teachings, were purely German in blood, while the people of the southern provinces, who adhered (as they still do) to the Roman Catholic faith, were more akin to the population of northern France.

The Spanish soldiers found little trouble in defeating the troops which William collected. Like Washington, he seemed to lose almost every battle and yet was never conquered. The first successes of the Dutch were gained by their bold mariners, who captured Spanish ships and sold them in Protestant England. Encouraged by this, many of the towns in the northern provinces of Holland and Zealand ventured to choose William as their governor, although they did not throw off their allegiance to Philip. In this way these two provinces became the nucleus of the United Netherlands.

562. Origin of the Dutch Republic. Alva recaptured a number of the revolted towns and treated their inhabitants with his customary cruelty; even women and children were slaughtered in cold blood. But instead of quenching the rebellion he aroused the Catholic southern provinces to revolt.

This revolt was, however, only temporary. Wiser and more moderate governors were sent by Philip to the Netherlands, and they soon succeeded in again winning the confidence of the southern Catholic provinces. So the northern provinces went their own way. Guided by William the Silent, they refused to consider the idea of again recognizing Philip as their king. In 1579 seven provinces, all lying north of the mouths of the Rhine and the Scheldt, formed the new and firmer Union of Utrecht. The articles of this union served as a constitution for the United Provinces, or Dutch Republic, which, two years later, at last formally declared itself independent of Spain.

563. Assassination of William the Silent. Philip realized that William was the soul of the revolt and that without him it might be put down. The king therefore offered to confer a title of nobility and a large sum of money on anyone who should

make way with the Dutch patriot. After several unsuccessful attempts, William, who had been chosen hereditary governor of the United Provinces, was shot in his house at Delft, 1584. He died praying the Lord to have pity upon his soul and "on this poor people."

564. Independence of the United Provinces. The Dutch had long hoped for aid from Queen Elizabeth or from the French, but had heretofore been disappointed. At last the English queen sent troops to their assistance. Elizabeth's policy so enraged Philip that he at last decided to attempt the conquest of England. The destruction of the "Armada," the great fleet which he equipped for that purpose (§ 581), interfered with further attempts to subjugate the United Provinces, which might otherwise have failed to maintain their liberty. Moreover, Spain's resources were being rapidly exhausted, and the State was on the verge of bankruptcy in spite of the wealth which she had been drawing from across the sea. But even though Spain had to surrender the hope of winning back the lost provinces, which now became a small but important European power, she refused formally to acknowledge their independence until 1648 (Peace of Westphalia, §§ 589, 590).

III. The Huguenot Wars in France

565. Beginnings of Protestantism in France. The history of France during the latter part of the sixteenth century is little more than a chronicle of a long and bloody series of civil wars between the Catholics and Protestants.

Francis I had no special interest in religious matters, but he was shocked by an act of desecration ascribed to the Protestants, and in consequence forbade the circulation of Protestant books. About 1535 several adherents of the new faith were burned, and Calvin was forced to flee to Basel, where he prepared a defense of his beliefs which he published as a sort of preface to his famous *Institute of Christianity* (§ 543). Francis finally became so intolerant that he ordered the massacre of three thousand defenseless

peasants who dwelt on the slopes of the Alps, and whose only offense was adherence to the simple teachings of the Waldensians (§ 396).

Francis's son, Henry II (1547–1559), swore to extirpate the Protestants, and hundreds of them were burned. He was accidentally killed and left his kingdom to three weak sons, the last scions of the house of Valois, who succeeded him in turn during a period of unprecedented civil war and public calamity.

When his second son, Charles IX (1560–1574), came to the throne he was but ten years old, so that his mother, Catherine of Medici, of the famous Florentine family, claimed the right to conduct the government for her son until he reached manhood.

566. The Huguenots and their Political Aims. By this time the Protestants in France had become a powerful party. They were known as *Huguenots*[1] and accepted the religious teachings of their fellow countryman Calvin. Many of them, including their great leader Coligny, belonged to the nobility. They had a strong support in the king of the little realm of Navarre, on the southern boundary of France. He belonged to a side line of the French royal house, known as the Bourbons, who were later to occupy the French throne. It was inevitable that the Huguenots should try to get control of the government, and they consequently formed a *political* as well as a *religious* party and were often fighting, in the main, for worldly ends.

567. Opening of the Huguenot Wars (1562). As the duke of Guise—an ardent Catholic nobleman—was passing through the town of Vassy on a Sunday he found a thousand Huguenots assembled in a barn for worship. The duke's followers rudely interrupted the service, and a tumult arose in which the troops killed a considerable number of the defenseless multitude. The news of this massacre aroused the Huguenots and was the beginning of a war which continued, broken only by short truces, for over thirty years. As in the other religious wars of the time, both sides exhibited inhuman cruelty. For a generation there were burnings, pillage, and atrocities throughout the realm.

[1] The origin of this name is uncertain.

France renewed in civil war all the horrors of the English invasions of the Hundred Years' War.

568. Massacre of St. Bartholomew (1572). For a time Charles IX and his mother, Catherine of Medici, established friendly terms with the great Huguenot leader Coligny, who even became a sort of prime minister. He was anxious that both Catholics and Huguenots should join in a great national war against France's old enemy the Hapsburgs of Spain. The strict Catholic party of the Guises frustrated this plan by a most fearful expedient. They easily induced Catherine of Medici to believe that she was being deceived by Coligny, and an assassin was engaged to put him out of the way; but the scoundrel missed his aim and only wounded his victim. Fearful lest the young king, who was faithful to Coligny, should discover her part in the attempted murder, Catherine invented a story of a great Huguenot conspiracy. It was arranged that at a given signal a general massacre of the Huguenots should begin on the eve of St. Bartholomew's Day (August 23, 1572). No less than two thousand Protestants were ruthlessly murdered in Paris before the end of the next day. The news of this attack spread into the provinces, and it is probable that, at the very least, ten thousand more Protestants were put to death outside of the capital.

HENRY IV OF FRANCE

This spirited portrait of Henry of Navarre gives an excellent impression of his geniality and good sense

569. Henry IV (1589–1610) accepts the Catholic Faith. Civil war again broke out and was accompanied by a complicated

struggle between claimants of the throne of France, as a result of which the Huguenot Henry of Navarre ascended the throne as Henry IV in 1589.

The new king had many enemies, and his kingdom was devastated and demoralized by years of war. He soon saw that he must accept the religion of the majority of his people if he wished to reign over them. He accordingly asked to be readmitted to the Catholic Church (1593), excusing himself on the ground that "Paris was worth a Mass." He did not forget his old friends, however, and in 1598 he issued the Edict of Nantes, which insured by law some protection for the Protestants.

570. The Edict of Nantes. By this edict of toleration the Calvinists were permitted to hold services in all the towns and villages where they had previously held them, but in Paris and a number of other towns all Protestant services were prohibited. The Protestants were to enjoy the same political rights as Catholics and to be eligible to government offices. A number of fortified towns were to remain in the hands of the Huguenots, where they could defend themselves if attacked.

571. Ministry of Sully. Henry IV chose Sully, an upright and able Calvinist, for his chief minister. Sully set to work to reëstablish the kingly power, which had suffered greatly under the last three brothers of the house of Valois.

In 1610 Henry IV, like William the Silent, was assassinated just in the midst of his greatest usefulness to his country. Sully could not agree with the regent, Henry's widow, and so gave up his position and retired to private life.

572. Richelieu. Before many years Richelieu, perhaps the greatest minister France has ever had, rose to power, and from 1624 to his death in 1642 he governed France for Henry IV's son, Louis XIII (1610–1643). Unlike Sully he was a Catholic and was made a cardinal by the Church. He reduced the power of the Huguenots by depriving them of their fortified towns, not so much on religious grounds as on account of the danger they had become to the king's power. Something will be said of his policy in connection with the Thirty Years' War (§ 588).

IV. England under Queen Elizabeth

573. England under Elizabeth (1558–1603). The long and disastrous civil war between Catholics and Protestants which desolated France in the sixteenth century had happily no counterpart in England. During her long reign Queen Elizabeth succeeded not only in maintaining peace at home but in repelling the attacks which threatened her realm from without.

A wealthy middle class was growing up in England who made their money in sheep raising, manufacture, and commerce. English trade was greatly extended, and the bold mariners of Elizabeth's time sailed about the whole globe, seeking new routes, capturing Spanish ships, plundering Spanish colonies, and sometimes engaging in the horrible traffic in negro slaves, which they seized in Africa and sold in the Americas.

Houses were more comfortable than they had been, and those who could afford them wore very fine clothes. Wines were imported from the Continent, and tobacco was introduced, but coffee and tea were as yet unknown in England. Pewter plates and spoons began to replace the wooden ones, and chimneys and window glass rendered houses comfortable. Mattresses and pillows took the place of straw pallets and the wooden billets formerly used. People continued, however, to eat with knives or with their fingers, for forks did not come in until later.

But while the sheep raising made a few rich, it impoverished many small farmers whose land fell into the hands of those who inclosed it for grazing tracts. The "inclosures" also included stretches of "commons," on which farmers and laborers had formerly pastured their animals free of charge. The inclosures caused great hardship during the whole sixteenth century, and paupers and tramps so increased that laws had to be passed to provide for them. The poor law enacted at the close of Elizabeth's reign was in force down to the nineteenth century.

Elizabeth's reign was celebrated for its great writers, like Shakespeare, Bacon, and Spenser. Poetry, the drama, and science all flourished (§§ 595, 596, 599).

PORTRAIT OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

Elizabeth, the first woman to rule England, deemed herself a very handsome and imposing person. She was fond of fine clothes and doubtless had on her best when she sat for her portrait

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS AND DARNLEY

Mary had been married to the heir to the French throne when she was sixteen. Her French husband, Francis II, died less than three years after. She then returned to Scotland and married her cousin Lord Darnley in 1565, when she was twenty-three years old

574. Elizabeth establishes the Church of England. Upon the death of Queen Mary (§ 551), in 1558, the English government became once more Protestant. Queen Elizabeth had a new revised edition issued of the Book of Common Prayer which had been prepared in the time of her half brother, Edward VI. This contained the services which the government ordered to be performed in all the churches of England. All her subjects were required to accept the queen's views and to go to church, and ministers were to use no other than the official prayer book. Elizabeth did not adopt the Presbyterian system advocated by Calvin but retained many features of the Catholic Church, including the bishops and archbishops. So the *Anglican Church*, as it was called, followed a middle path halfway between the Lutherans and Calvinists on the one hand and the Catholics on the other.

Elizabeth's first Parliament gave the sovereign the *powers* of supreme head of the Church of England, although the *title*, which her father, Henry VIII, had assumed, was not revived.

The Church of England still exists in much the same form in which it was established in the first years of Elizabeth's reign, and the prayer book is still used, although Englishmen are no longer required to attend church and may hold any religious views they please without being interfered with by the government.

575. Presbyterian Church established in Scotland. Conditions in Scotland caused much trouble for Elizabeth. There, shortly after her accession, the ancient Catholic Church was abolished, for the nobles were anxious to get the lands of the bishops into their own hands and enjoy the revenue from them. John Knox, a veritable second Calvin in his stern energy, secured the introduction of the Presbyterian form of faith and church government which still prevails in Scotland.

576. Mary Stuart, the Scotch Queen, the Hope of the Catholics. In 1561 the Scotch queen, Mary Stuart, whose French husband, Francis II, had just died, landed at Leith. She was but nineteen years old, of great beauty and charm, and, by reason of her Catholic faith and French training, almost a foreigner to her subjects. Her grandmother was a sister of Henry VIII, and

Mary claimed to be the rightful heiress to the English throne should Elizabeth die childless. Consequently the beautiful Queen of Scots became the hope of all those who wished to bring back England and Scotland to the Roman Catholic faith. Chief among these were Philip II of Spain and the powerful French family, the Guises (§§ 567, 568), to which Mary's mother had belonged.

Mary quickly discredited herself with both Protestants and Catholics by her conduct. She was suspected of being implicated in the death of her second husband, Lord Darnley, in order to marry a nobleman named Bothwell. How far Mary was responsible for her husband's death no one can be sure. It is certain that she later married Bothwell and that her indignant subjects thereupon deposed her as a murderess. After fruitless attempts to regain her power she abdicated in favor of her infant son, James VI, and then fled to England to appeal to Elizabeth. While the prudent Elizabeth denied the right of the Scotch to depose their queen, she was afraid of her claims and took good care to keep her rival practically a prisoner.

577. The Rising in the North (1569) and Catholic Plans for deposing Elizabeth. As time went on it became increasingly difficult for Elizabeth to adhere to her policy of moderation in the treatment of the Catholics. A rising in the north of England (1569) showed that there were many who would gladly reëstablish the Catholic faith by freeing Mary and placing her on the English throne. This was followed by the excommunication of Elizabeth by the Pope, who at the same time absolved her subjects from their allegiance to their heretical ruler. Happily for Elizabeth the rebels could look for no help either from Philip II or the French king. The Spaniards had their hands full, for the war in the Netherlands had just begun; and Charles IX, who had accepted Coligny as his adviser, was at that moment in hearty accord with the Huguenots. The rising in the North was suppressed, but the English Catholics continued to look to Philip for help. They opened correspondence with Alva and invited him to come with six thousand Spanish troops to dethrone Elizabeth and make Mary Stuart queen of England in her stead.

GREAT TANGLEY MANOR IN SURREY, BUILT IN ELIZABETH'S TIME

Such houses of the English nobility often lay in great parks which Lloyd George felt should be turned over to agriculture

Alva hesitated, for he thought that it would be better to kill Elizabeth, or at least capture her. Meanwhile the plot was discovered and came to naught.

578. Relations between England and Catholic Ireland. One hope of the Catholics has not yet been mentioned, namely, Ireland, whose relations with England from very early times down to the present day form one of the most tragic pages in the history of Europe. The population was divided into numerous clans, and their chieftains fought constantly with one another as well as with the English, who were vainly endeavoring to subjugate the island.

Several attempts were made by Catholic leaders to land troops in Ireland with the purpose of making the island the base for an attack on England. Elizabeth's officers were able to frustrate these enterprises, but the resulting disturbances greatly increased the misery of the Irish. In 1582 no less than thirty thousand people are said to have perished, chiefly from starvation.

579. Persecution of the English Catholics. Two Jesuits were sent to England in 1580 to encourage the adherents of their faith. Parliament now grew more intolerant and ordered fines and imprisonment to be inflicted on those who said or heard Mass or who refused to attend the English services. One of the Jesuit emissaries was cruelly tortured and executed for treason, the other escaped to the Continent. In the spring of 1582 the first attempt by the Catholics to assassinate the heretical queen was made at Philip's instigation. It was proposed that when Elizabeth was out of the way an army should be sent to England to support the Catholics.

580. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots (1587). Mary Queen of Scots did not live to witness the attempt. She became implicated in another plot for the assassination of Elizabeth. Parliament now realized that as long as Mary lived Elizabeth's life was in constant danger; whereas if Mary were out of the way, Philip II would have no interest in the death of Elizabeth, since Mary's son, James VI of Scotland, who would succeed Elizabeth on the English throne, was a Protestant. Elizabeth was therefore

reluctantly persuaded by her advisers to sign a warrant for Mary's execution in 1587, and the Scotch queen was beheaded.

581. Destruction of the Spanish Armada (1588). Philip II, however, by no means gave up his project of reclaiming Protestant England. In 1588 he brought together a great fleet, including his best and largest warships, which was proudly called by the Spaniards the "Invincible Armada" (that is, fleet). This was to sail through the English Channel to the Netherlands and bring over the Spanish commander there and his veterans, who, it was expected, would soon make an end of Elizabeth's raw militia. The English ships were inferior to those of Spain in size, although not in number, but they had trained commanders, such as Francis Drake and Hawkins.

These famous captains had long sailed the Spanish Main and knew how to use their cannon without getting near enough to the Spaniards to suffer from their short-range weapons. When the Armada approached it was permitted by the English fleet to pass up the Channel before a strong wind, which later became a storm. The English ships then followed, and both fleets were driven past the coast of Flanders. Of the hundred and twenty Spanish ships only fifty-four returned home; the rest had been destroyed by English valor or by the gale, to which Elizabeth herself ascribed the victory. The defeat of the Armada put an end to the danger from Spain.

582. Failure of Philip II's Policy. When Philip II died, in 1598, it was apparent that he had not succeeded in his cherished purposes. England was permanently Protestant; the "Invincible Armada" had been miserably wrecked, and Philip's plan for bringing England once more within the fold of the Roman Catholic Church was forever frustrated. In France the terrible wars of religion were over, and a powerful king, lately a Protestant himself, was on the throne, who not only tolerated the Protestants but chose one of them for his chief minister and would brook no more meddling of Spain in French affairs (§§ 569 ff.). A new Protestant state, the United Netherlands (Holland), had actually appeared within the bounds of the realm bequeathed to

Philip by his father. In spite of its small size Holland was destined to play, from that time on, quite as important a part in European affairs as Spain, from whose control it had escaped.

Spain itself had suffered most of all from Philip's reign. His domestic policy and his expensive wars had sadly weakened the country. The income from across the sea was bound to decrease as the mines were exhausted. After Philip II's death Spain sank to the rank of a secondary European power.

V. The Thirty Years' War

583. The Thirty Years' War really a Series of Wars. The last great conflict caused by the differences between Catholics and Protestants was fought out in Germany during the first half of the seventeenth century. It is generally known as the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648), but there was in reality a series of wars; and although the fighting was done upon German territory, Sweden, France, and Spain played quite as important a part in the struggle as the various German states.

584. Opening of the Thirty Years' War (1618). Since the religious Peace of Augsburg, in 1555 (§ 539), the Protestants had increased in numbers, and the seizure of Church property by the Protestant princes had continued. Bohemia and even Austria contained many Protestants, and this was a source of terrible anxiety to the Hapsburg rulers and their efficient helpers, the Jesuits. Bohemia, in 1618, determined to call a Calvinist prince from the Palatinate on the Rhine to be their king. But the emperor was able to put the usurping ruler to flight after a reign of a single winter.

This was regarded by the Protestants as a serious defeat, and the Protestant king of Denmark decided to intervene. He remained in Germany for four years, but was so badly beaten by the emperor's able general Wallenstein that he retired from the conflict in 1629.

585. The Edict of Restitution (1629). The emperor was encouraged by the successes of the Catholic armies in defeating

the Bohemian and Danish Protestant armies to issue that same year an Edict of Restitution. In this he ordered the Protestants throughout Germany to give back all the Church possessions which they had seized since the religious Peace of Augsburg. Moreover, he decreed that only the Lutherans might hold religious meetings; the other "sects," including the Calvinists, were to be broken up. As Wallenstein was preparing to execute this decree in his usual merciless fashion the war took a new turn, owing to the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden.

586. The Kingdom of Sweden. We have had no occasion hitherto to speak of the Scandinavian kingdoms of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, which the northern German peoples had established about Charlemagne's time; but from now on they begin to take part in the affairs of central Europe. The Union of Calmar (1397) had brought these three kingdoms, previously separate, under a single ruler. About the time that the Protestant revolt began in Germany the union was broken by the withdrawal of Sweden, which became an independent kingdom. Gustavus Vasa, a Swedish noble, led the movement and was later chosen king of Sweden (1523). In the same year Protestantism was introduced. Vasa confiscated the Church lands, got the better of the nobles,—who had formerly made the kings a great deal of trouble,—and started Sweden on its way toward national greatness.

587. Gustavus Adolphus invades Germany. Gustavus Adolphus undoubtedly hoped by invading Germany not only to free his fellow Protestants from the oppression of the emperor and of the Catholic League but to gain a strip of German territory for Sweden. Near Leipzig he met and routed the army of the League.

At this juncture Wallenstein collected a new army, over which he was given absolute command. After some delay Gustavus met Wallenstein on the field of Lützen, in November, 1632, where, after a fierce struggle, the Swedes gained the victory. But they lost their leader and Protestantism its hero, for the Swedish king ventured too far into the lines of the enemy and was surrounded and killed.

The Swedes did not, however, retire from Germany, but continued to participate in the war, which now degenerated into a series of raids by leaders whose soldiers depopulated the land by their unspeakable atrocities. Wallenstein, who had long been detested even by the Catholics, was deserted by his soldiers and murdered (in 1634), to the great relief of all parties.

PORTRAIT OF CARDINAL RICHELIEU. (FROM A CONTEMPORANEOUS PAINTING)

588. Richelieu renews the Struggle of France against the Hapsburgs. At this moment Richelieu (§ 572) decided that it would be to the interest of France to renew the old struggle with the Hapsburgs by sending troops against the emperor. France was still shut in, as she had been since the time of Charles V, by the Hapsburg lands. So the war was renewed in 1635, and French, Swedish, Spanish, and German soldiers ravaged an already exhausted country for a decade longer. The dearth of provisions was so great that the armies had to move quickly from place to place in order to avoid starvation.

589. Close of the Thirty Years' War (1648). The participants in the war were now so numerous and their objects so various and conflicting that it is not strange that it required some years to arrange the conditions of peace, even after everyone was ready for it. For four years the representatives of the several powers worked upon the difficult problem of satisfying everyone, but at last the treaties of Westphalia were signed late in 1648.

590. Provisions of the Treaties of Westphalia. The religious troubles in Germany were settled by extending the toleration of the Peace of Augsburg so as to include the Calvinists as well as the Lutherans. The Protestant princes were to retain the lands which they had in their possession in the year 1624, regardless of the Edict of Restitution, and each ruler was still to have the right to determine the religion of his state. The practical dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire was acknowledged by permitting the individual states to make treaties among themselves and with foreign powers; this was equivalent to recognizing the independence which they had, as a matter of fact, already long enjoyed. While portions of northern Germany were ceded to Sweden, this territory did not cease to form nominally a part of the Empire, for Sweden was thereafter to have three votes in the German diet.

The emperor also ceded to France three important towns—Metz, Verdun, and Toul—and all his rights in Alsace, although the city of Strassburg was to remain with the Empire. Lastly, the independence both of the United Netherlands and of Switzerland was acknowledged.

591. Disastrous Results of the War in Germany. The accounts of the misery and depopulation of Germany caused by the Thirty Years' War are well-nigh incredible. Thousands of villages were wiped out altogether; in some regions the population was reduced by one half, in others to a third, or even less, of what it had been at the opening of the conflict. The people were fearfully barbarized by privation and suffering and by the atrocities of the soldiers of all the various nations. Until the end of the eighteenth century Germany remained too impoverished to make any considerable contribution to the culture of Europe.

Among the German rulers the hitherto rather unimportant electors of Brandenburg, of the House of Hohenzollern, were just beginning to build up a power destined in our own days to cause untold disaster. Hohenzollern rulers created the kingdom of Prussia in the eighteenth century, humbled both France and the Hapsburgs in the nineteenth, and finally so overreached themselves in the twentieth century that they lost their throne altogether.

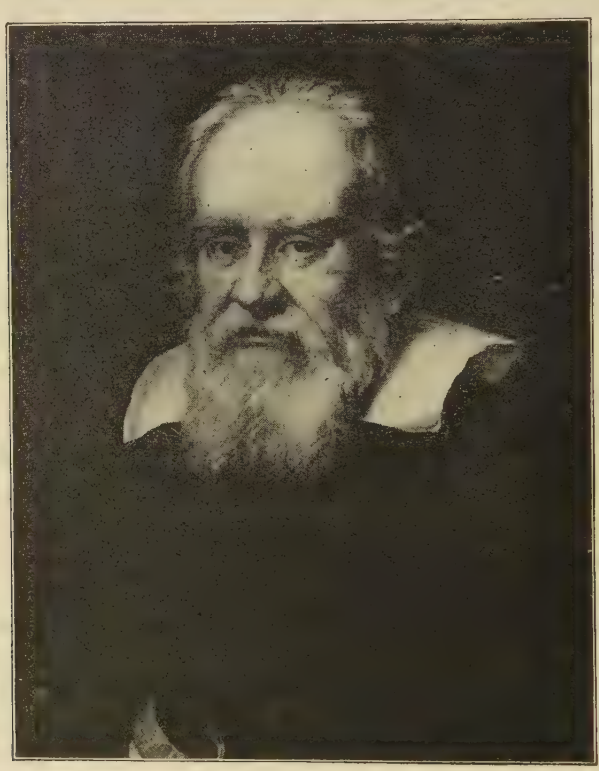
VI. The Beginnings of our Scientific Age

592. The New Science. The battles of the Thirty Years' War are now well-nigh forgotten, and few people are interested in Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus. It seems as if the war did little but destroy men's lives and property, and that no great ends were accomplished by all the suffering it involved. But during the years that it raged certain men were quietly devoting themselves to scientific research which was to change the world more than all the battles that have ever been fought. These men adopted a new method. They perceived that the books of ancient writers, especially Aristotle, which were used as textbooks in the universities, were full of statements that could not be proved. They maintained that the only way to advance science was to set to work and try experiments, and by careful thought and investigation to determine the laws of nature without regard to what previous generations had believed.

593. The Discovery of Copernicus. The Polish astronomer Copernicus published a work in 1543 in which he refuted the old idea that the sun and all the stars revolved around the earth as a center, as was then taught in all the universities. He showed that, on the contrary, the sun was the center about which the earth and the rest of the planets revolved, and that the reason that the stars seem to go around the earth each day is because our globe revolves on its axis. Although Copernicus had been encouraged to write his book by a cardinal and had dedicated it to the Pope, the Catholic as well as the Protestant theologians declared that the new theory contradicted the teachings of the Bible, and they therefore rejected it. But we know now that Copernicus was right and the theologians and universities wrong.

594. Galileo. The Italian scientist Galileo (1564–1642), by the use of a little telescope he contrived, was able, in 1610, to see the spots on the sun; these indicated that the sun was not, as Aristotle had taught, a perfect, unchanging body, and showed also that it revolved on its axis, as Copernicus had guessed that the earth did. Galileo made careful experiments by dropping

objects from the leaning tower of Pisa, which proved that Aristotle was wrong in assuming that a body weighing a hundred pounds fell a hundred times as fast as a body weighing but one. He wrote in Italian as well as in Latin. His opponents might have



GALILEO

forgiven him had he written only for the learned, but they thought it highly dangerous to have the new ideas set forth in such a way that the people at large might come to doubt what the theologians and universities were teaching. Galileo was finally summoned before the Inquisition; some of his theories were condemned, and he was imprisoned by the Church authorities.

595. Francis Bacon's *New Atlantis*. Francis Bacon, an English lawyer and government official, spent his spare hours in explaining how men could increase their knowledge. He too wrote in his native tongue as well as in Latin. He was the most eloquent representative of the new science which renounced *authority* and relied upon *experiment*. "We are the ancients," he declared, not those who lived long ago when the world was young and men ignorant. Late in life he began to write a little book, which he never finished, called the *New Atlantis*. It describes an imaginary state which some European mariners were supposed to have discovered on an island in the Pacific Ocean. The chief institution was a "House of Solomon," a great laboratory for carrying on scientific investigation in the hope of discovering new facts and using them for bettering the condition of the inhabitants. This House of Solomon became a model for the Royal Society, established in London some fifty years after Bacon's death. It still exists and publishes its proceedings.

HONORATISS. D. FRANCISCUS BACON
The right Honorable Sr Francis Bacon
knight. Baron of Verulam. Lord high Chauncelor of
England and one of his Ma.ties most hon.ble priuie Counsell

LORD BACON

596. Scientific Societies Founded. The earliest societies for scientific research grew up in Italy. Later the English Royal Society and the French Institute were established, as well as similar associations in Germany. These were the first things of

the kind in the history of the world—except perhaps the ancient *Museum* at Alexandria (§ 170). Their object was not, like that of the old Greek schools of philosophy and the medieval universities, mainly to hand down and explain the knowledge derived from the past, but to find out what had never been known before.

We have seen how in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries new inventions were made, such as the compass, paper, spectacles, gunpowder, and, in the fifteenth century, the printing press. But in the seventeenth century progress began to be much more rapid, and an era of invention opened, in the midst of which we still live. The microscope and telescope made it possible to discover innumerable scientific truths that were hidden from the Greeks and Romans. In time this scientific advance produced a *spirit of reform*, also new in the world.

QUESTIONS

I. What means did the Catholics take to reform the Church? Give an account of the famous Council of Trent. What was accomplished by the Council? What is the *Index*? Describe the founding of the order of Jesuits. What were its aim and policy?

II. Describe the revolt of the Netherlands. What was the character of Philip II? Give an account of the leadership of William of Orange. What was the origin of the Dutch Republic?

III. Describe the beginnings of Protestantism in France. Describe the struggle of the Huguenots with the Catholics. Describe the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. What was the attitude of Henry IV toward the Protestants? What were the provisions of the Edict of Nantes?

IV. What religious settlement was made by Queen Elizabeth? Describe the characteristics of the Anglican Church. In what way did Mary Stuart threaten the power of Elizabeth? Describe the destruction of the Armada.

V. Give a brief account of the Thirty Years' War. Tell what you can of Richelieu. What were the provisions of the treaties of Westphalia? What were the results of the war on Germany?

VI. What was the great discovery made by Copernicus? What discoveries were made by Galileo? Why was the Church opposed to the teachings of these men? What do you know of Francis Bacon? Give an account of the founding of scientific societies.

BOOK VII. THE SEVENTEENTH AND EARLY EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

CHAPTER XXVIII

STRUGGLE IN ENGLAND BETWEEN KING AND PARLIAMENT

I. The Stuarts and the Divine Right of Kings

597. Accession of James I of England (1603); the Stuarts. On the death of Elizabeth in 1603 James I ascended the throne. It will be remembered that he was the son of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, and through her he was a descendant of Henry VIII. In Scotland he reigned as James VI; consequently the two kingdoms were now brought together under the same ruler.

The chief interest of the period of the Stuarts, which began with the accession of James I and ended with the flight from England of his grandson, James II, eighty-five years later, is the long and bitter struggle between the Stuart kings and Parliament. The vital question was, Should the Stuart kings, who claimed to be God's representatives on earth, do as they thought fit, or should Parliament control them and the government of the country?

598. James I loved to discuss the King's Claims. James I had a very irritating way of claiming to be the sole and supreme ruler of England. He wrote a book in which he asserted that the king could make any law he pleased without consulting Parliament; that he was the master of every one of his subjects, high and low, and might put to death whom he pleased. According to the theory of "the divine right of kings" which James held,

it had pleased God to appoint the monarch the father of his people, who must obey him as they would God and ask no questions. The king was responsible to God alone, to whom he owed his powers, not to Parliament or the nation.

599. Great Writers of James's Reign—Shakespeare, Bacon, Harvey. The writers of James's reign constituted its chief glory. They outshone those of any other European country. Shakespeare is generally admitted to be the greatest dramatist that the world has produced. While he wrote many of his plays before the death of Elizabeth, some of his finest—*Othello*, *King Lear*, and the *Tempest*, for example—belong to the time of James I.

JAMES I

At the same time Francis Bacon (§ 595) was making his eloquent plea for modern science. It was in James's reign also that the English translation of the Bible was made which is still known and is still published as the *authorized* version in all countries where English is spoken.

An English physician of this period, William Harvey, examined the workings of the human body more carefully than any previous investigator and made the great discovery of the manner in which the blood circulates from the heart through the arteries and capillaries and back through the veins—a matter which had previously been entirely misunderstood.

600. Charles I (1625–1649) and his Struggle with Parliament. Charles I, James's son and successor, did nothing to remove the disagreeable impressions of his father's reign and began immediately

to quarrel with Parliament. When that body refused to grant him funds,—mainly because they thought that these were likely to be wasted by his favorite, the duke of Buckingham,—Charles attempted, without the permission of Parliament, to raise money in irregular ways, such as forcing loans from his subjects and imprisoning those who protested.

These and other attacks upon the rights of his people led Parliament to draw up, in 1628, the celebrated Petition of Right, which is one of the most important documents in the history of the English Constitution. Parliament "humbly prayed" that no man need thereafter be forced to make any gift or loan to the king without consent of Parliament; that no free man should be imprisoned except according to the laws and statutes of the realm as presented in the Great Charter (§ 377). Very reluctantly Charles consented to this restatement of the limitations which the English had always, in theory at least, placed upon the powers of their king.

CHARLES I OF ENGLAND

This portrait is by one of the greatest painters of the time, Anthony Van Dyck, 1599–1641 (see cut on page 355)

The disagreement between Charles and Parliament was rendered much more serious by religious differences. The king had married a French Catholic princess, and the Catholic cause seemed to be gaining on the Continent. There was evidently a growing inclination in England to restore the older ceremonies of the Church which had prevailed before the Protestant Revolt and which shocked the more strongly Protestant members of the House of Commons.

601. Charles dissolves Parliament (1629) and determines to rule by himself. This fear of a return to Roman Catholicism served to widen the breach between Charles and the Commons. The Parliament of 1629, after a stormy session, was dissolved by the king, who determined to rule thereafter by himself. For eleven years no new Parliament was summoned.

Charles was not well fitted by nature to run the government of England by himself. He had not the necessary tireless energy. Moreover, the methods resorted to by his ministers to raise money without recourse to Parliament rendered the king more and more unpopular and prepared the way for the triumphant return of Parliament.

602. The Different Sects of Protestants—High Church and Low Church. In 1633 Charles made William Laud archbishop of Canterbury. The new archbishop ruled that every clergyman who obstinately refused to conform to the services of the State Church should be brought before the king's special Court of High Commission to be tried and, if convicted, to be deprived of his position.

Laud's conduct was no doubt gratifying to the High Church party among the Protestants; that is, those who still clung to some of the ancient practices of the Roman Church, although they rejected the doctrine of the Mass and refused to regard the Pope as their head. The Low Church party, or *Puritans*, on the contrary, regarded Laud and his policy with aversion. While they did not urge the abolition of the bishops, they disliked all "superstitious usages," as they called the wearing of the surplice by the clergy, the use of the sign of the cross at baptism, the kneeling posture in partaking of the communion, and so forth.

603. The Independents. Moreover, there was an ever-increasing number of Separatists, or Independents. These rejected both the organization of the Church of England and that of the Presbyterians and desired that each religious community should organize itself independently. The government had forbidden these Separatists to hold their little meetings, which they called *conventicles*, and about 1600 some of them fled to Holland.

604. The Pilgrim Fathers. The community of them which established itself at Leyden dispatched the *Mayflower,* in 1620, with colonists—since known as the Pilgrim Fathers—to the New World across the sea. It was these colonists who laid the foundations of a *New England* which has proved a worthy offspring of

CHILDREN OF CHARLES I

This very interesting picture, by the Flemish artist Van Dyck, was painted in 1637. The boy with his hand on the dog's head was destined to become Charles II of England. Next on the left is the prince, who was later James II. The girl to the extreme left, the Princess Mary, married the governor of the United Netherlands, and her son became William III of England in 1688. The two princesses on the right died in childhood

the mother country. The form of worship which they established in their new home is still known as Congregational.

605. The Long Parliament. In 1640 Charles found himself engaged in a war with Scotland, which, as we have seen (§ 575), had become Presbyterian and refused to be forced to accept the Anglican form of worship. The army which the king got together was reluctant to fight the Scots, so Charles was at last

obliged to summon a Parliament. This, owing to the length of time it remained in session, was called the Long Parliament.

The Long Parliament began by imprisoning Archbishop Laud in the Tower of London. It declared him guilty of treason, and he was executed in 1645 in spite of Charles's efforts to save him. Parliament drew up a "Grand Remonstrance" in which all of Charles's errors were enumerated and a demand was made that the king's ministers should thereafter be responsible to Parliament.

606. The Beginning of Civil War (1642); *Cavaliers* and *Roundheads*. Matters grew rapidly worse, and both Charles and Parliament now began to gather troops for the inevitable conflict, which plunged England into civil war. Those who supported Charles were called *Cavaliers*. They included not only most of the aristocracy and the Catholic party but also a number of members of the House of Commons who were fearful lest Presbyterianism should succeed in doing away with the English Church. The parliamentary party was popularly known as the *Roundheads*, since some of them cropped their hair close because of their dislike for the long locks of their more aristocratic and worldly opponents. The Cavaliers in turn scorned the Roundheads as a set of hypocrites, on account of their solemn ways and for liking to go to meeting and singing psalms instead of trying to have a good time.

607. Oliver Cromwell; Defeat of Charles's Armies at Marston Moor and Naseby. The Roundheads soon found a distinguished leader in Oliver Cromwell (b. 1599), a country gentleman and member of Parliament, who was later to become the most powerful ruler of his time. Cromwell organized a compact army of God-fearing men, who were not permitted to indulge in profane words or light talk, as is the wont of soldiers, but advanced upon their enemies singing psalms. The king enjoyed the support of northern England and also looked for help from Ireland, where the royal and Catholic causes were popular.

The war continued for several years and, after the first year, went in general against the Cavaliers. Finally, the king, defeated

on every side, put himself in the hands of the Scotch army which had come to the aid of Parliament (1646), and the Scotch soon turned him over to Parliament. During the next two years Charles was held in captivity.

608. Pride's Purge. There were, however, many in the House of Commons who still sided with the king, and in December, 1648, that body declared for a reconciliation with the monarch, whom they had safely imprisoned in the Isle of Wight. The next day Colonel Pride, representing the army,—which constituted a party in itself and was opposed to all negotiations between the king and the Commons,—stood at the door of the House with a troop of soldiers and excluded all the members who were known to take the side of the king. This outrageous act is known in history as "Pride's Purge."

609. Execution of Charles (1649). In this way the House of Commons was brought completely under the control of those most bitterly hostile to the king, whom they immediately proposed to bring to trial. They declared that the House of Commons, since it was chosen by the people, was supreme in England and the source of all just power, and that consequently neither king nor House of Lords was necessary. The mutilated House of Commons appointed a special High Court of Justice made up of Charles's sternest opponents, who alone would consent to sit in judgment on him. They passed sentence upon the king and on January 30, 1649, Charles was beheaded in front of his palace of Whitehall, London. It must be clear from the above account that it was not the nation at large which demanded Charles's death, but a very small group of extremists who claimed to be the representatives of the nation.

II. Oliver Cromwell; England a Commonwealth

610. England becomes a Commonwealth, or Republic. The "Rump Parliament," as the remnant of the House of Commons was contemptuously called, proclaimed England to be thereafter a "commonwealth"; that is, a republic, without a king or House

of Lords. But Cromwell, the head of the army, was nevertheless the real ruler of England. He was supported by the Independents, but his main strength lay in his skill as an administrator and in the well-organized army of some fifty thousand men which he had at his command.

OLIVER CROMWELL

This portrait is by Peter Lely and was painted in 1653

611. Ireland and Scotland Subdued. Cromwell found himself confronted by every kind of difficulty. The three kingdoms had fallen apart. The nobles and Catholics in Ireland proclaimed Charles II as king, and an army of Irish Catholics and English royalist Protestants was formed with a view of overthrowing the Commonwealth. Cromwell accordingly set out for Ireland, where town after town surrendered to his army. In 1652, after much cruelty, the island was once more conquered. A large part of it was confiscated for the benefit of the English, and the Catholic landowners were driven into the mountains. In the meantime Charles II, who after his father's execution had taken refuge in France, had in 1650 landed in Scotland, and upon his agreeing to be a Presbyterian king the whole Scotch nation was ready to support him. But Scotland was subdued by Cromwell even more promptly than Ireland had been. So completely was the Scottish army destroyed that Cromwell found no need to draw the sword again in the British Isles.

612. Cromwell dissolves the Long Parliament (1653) and is made Lord Protector. Cromwell failed, however, to get along with Parliament much better than Charles I had done. The Rump Parliament had become very unpopular, for its members, in spite of their boasted piety, accepted bribes and were zealous in the promotion of their relatives in the public service. At last Cromwell upbraided them angrily for their injustice and self-interest, which were injuring the public cause. On being interrupted by a member, he cried out, "Come, come, we have had enough of this. I'll put an end to this. It's not fit that you should sit here any longer," and calling in his soldiers he turned the members out of the House and sent them home. Having thus made an end of the Long Parliament (April, 1653), he summoned a Parliament of his own, made up of "God-fearing" men whom he and the officers of his army chose. This extraordinary body is known as Barebone's Parliament, from a distinguished member, a London merchant, with the characteristically Puritan name of Praisegod Barebone. Many of these godly men were, however, unpractical and hard to deal with. A minority of the more sensible ones got up early one winter morning (December, 1653) and, before their opponents had a chance to protest, declared Parliament dissolved and placed the supreme authority in the hands of Cromwell.

613. The Protector's Foreign Policy. For nearly five years Cromwell was, as Lord Protector,—a title equivalent to that of Regent,—practically king of England, although he refused actually to accept the royal insignia. He did not succeed in permanently organizing the government at home, but he showed remarkable ability in his foreign negotiations. He promptly formed an alliance with France, and English troops aided the French in winning a great victory over Spain. England gained thereby Dunkirk and the West Indian island of Jamaica.

614. Cromwell's Death. In May, 1658, Cromwell fell ill and died, and as a great storm passed over England at that time, the Cavaliers asserted that the devil had come to fetch home the soul of the usurper.

III. The Restoration

615. The Restoration; Charles II (1660–1685). After Cromwell's death his son Richard, who succeeded him, found himself unable to carry on the government. He soon abdicated, and the remnants of the Long Parliament met once more. But that body soon peacefully disbanded of its own accord. The nation was glad to acknowledge Charles II, whom everyone preferred to a government by soldiers. A new Parliament, composed of both houses, was assembled, which welcomed a messenger from the king and solemnly resolved that "according to the ancient and fundamental laws of this kingdom, the government is, and ought to be, by king, lords, and commons." Thus the Puritan revolution and the short-lived republic were followed by the *Restoration* of the Stuarts.

Charles II was quite as fond as his father of having his own way, but he was a man of more ability. He disliked to be ruled by Parliament, but, unlike his father, he was too wise to arouse the nation against him. He did not propose to let anything happen which would send him on his travels again. He and his courtiers led a gay life in sharp contrast to the Puritan ideas.

616. Religious Measures adopted by Parliament. Charles's first Parliament was a moderate body, but his second was made up almost wholly of Cavaliers, and it got along, on the whole, so well with the king that he did not dissolve it for eighteen years. It did not take up the old question, which was still unsettled, as to whether Parliament or the king was really supreme. It showed its hostility, however, to the Puritans by a series of intolerant laws, which are very important in English history. An effort was made to exclude Presbyterians and Independents from town offices. By the Act of Uniformity (1662) any clergyman who refused to accept everything in the Book of Common Prayer was to be excluded from holding his benefice. That many disagreed with the Anglican Church is shown by the fact that two thousand clergymen thereupon resigned their positions for conscience' sake.

These laws tended to throw all those Protestants who refused

to conform to the Church of England into a single class, still known today as *Dissenters*. It included the Independents, the Presbyterians, and the newer bodies of the Baptists and the Society of Friends (commonly known as Quakers). These sects had no desire to control the religion or politics of the country and asked only that they might be permitted to worship in their own way outside of the English Church.

617. Toleration Favored by the King; Opposed by Parliament. The king, in spite of his dissolute habits, was inclined to be tolerant toward differences in religious beliefs and had secret leanings toward Catholicism. But his efforts to secure religious liberty for Catholics and Dissenters only aroused Parliament to pass harsher measures, for fear the king might once more restore "popery" in the realm. The law excluding all but adherents of the English Church from office remained in force down into the nineteenth century.

618. War with Holland. Charles II, who was earnestly desirous of increasing English commerce and of founding new colonies, renewed a struggle with the Dutch which had begun under Cromwell. This war aimed to destroy Holland's shipping and thereby increase the trade of England. The two nations were very evenly matched on the sea, but in 1664 the English seized some of the West Indian Islands from the Dutch. And what was of much greater importance, the English captured the Dutch settlement on Manhattan Island, which was renamed New York in honor of the king's brother, the Duke of York. In 1667 a treaty was signed by England and Holland which confirmed these conquests.

IV. The Revolution of 1688

619. James II (1685–1688). Upon Charles II's death he was succeeded by his brother, James II, who was an avowed Catholic and had married, as his second wife, Mary of Modena, who was also a Catholic. He was a far more religious man than the late king and was ready to reëstablish Catholicism in England

regardless of what it might cost him. Mary, James's daughter by his first wife, had married her cousin, William III, Prince of Orange,[1] the head of the United Netherlands, as Holland was called. The English nation might have tolerated James so long as they could look forward to the accession of his Protestant daughter. But when a son was born to his Catholic second wife, and James showed unmistakably his purpose of favoring the Catholics, messengers were dispatched by a group of Protestants to William of Orange, asking him to come and rule over them.

620. The Revolution of 1688 and the Accession of William III (1688–1702). William landed in November, 1688, and marched upon London, where he received general support from all the English Protestants, regardless of party. James II started to oppose William, but his army refused to fight and his courtiers deserted him. James fled to France, and a new Parliament declared the throne vacant.

621. The Bill of Rights (1689). A Bill of Rights was then drawn up, appointing William and Mary joint sovereigns. The Bill of Rights, which is an important monument in English constitutional history, once more stated the fundamental rights of the English nation and the limitations which the Petition of Right and the Great Charter of King John had placed upon the king (§§ 377, 600). By this peaceful revolution the English rid themselves of the Stuarts and their claims to rule by divine right, the powers of Parliament were once more established, and the Catholic question was practically settled by the dethroning of a king who openly favored the rule of the Pope.

The *Toleration Act* was passed by Parliament, which freed Dissenters from all penalties for failing to attend services in Anglican churches and allowed them to have their own meetings. Even Catholics, while not included in the act of toleration, were permitted to hold services undisturbed by the government.

[1] Son of Charles I's daughter, Mary, who had married William, Prince of Orange.

V. England after the Revolution of 1688

622. Questions settled by the Accession of William and Mary. With the accession of William and Mary, in 1688, England may be said to have practically settled the two great questions that had produced such serious dissensions during the previous fifty years. In the first place, the nation had clearly shown that it proposed to remain Protestant, and the relations between the Church of England and the Dissenters were gradually being satisfactorily adjusted. In the second place, the powers of the king had been carefully defined, and from the opening of the eighteenth century to the present time no English monarch has ventured to veto an act of Parliament.[1]

623. The Union of England and Scotland (1707). William III was succeeded in 1702 by his sister-in-law, Anne, a younger daughter of James II. Far more important than the War of the Spanish Succession, which her generals carried on against Louis XIV, was the final union of England and Scotland. The two countries had been under the same ruler since the accession of James I, but each had maintained its own independent parliament and system of government. Finally, in 1707, both nations agreed to unite their governments into one. Forty-five members of the British House of Commons were to be chosen thereafter in Scotland, and sixteen Scotch lords were to be added to the English House of Lords. In this way the whole island of Great Britain was placed under a single government, and the occasions for strife were thereby greatly reduced.

624. Accession of George I (1714–1727) of Hanover. Since none of Anne's children survived her, she was succeeded, according to an arrangement made before her accession, by the nearest Protestant heir. This was the son of James I's granddaughter Sophia. She had married the elector of Hanover[2]; consequently

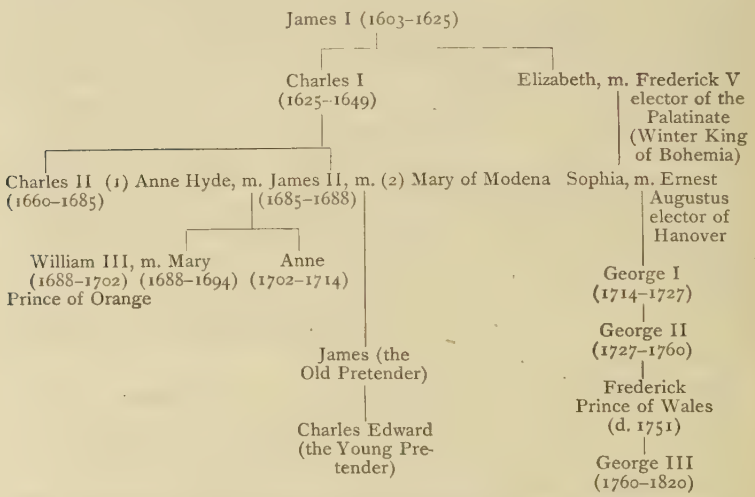
[1] The last instance in which an English ruler vetoed a measure passed by Parliament was in 1707.

[2] Originally there had been seven electors, but the duke of Bavaria had been made an elector during the Thirty Years' War, and in 1692 the father of George I had been permitted to assume the title of "elector of Hanover."

the new king of England, George I,[1] was also elector of Hanover and a member of the Holy Roman Empire.[2]

625. England and the "Balance of Power." William of Orange had been a continental statesman before he became king of England, and his chief aim had always been to prevent France from becoming overpowerful. He joined in the long War of the Spanish Succession (1702–1713) in order to maintain the "balance of power" between the various European countries. During the eighteenth century England, for the same reason, continued to take some part in the struggles between the continental powers, although she had no expectation of extending her sway across the Channel. The wars which she waged in order to increase her own power and territory were carried on in distant parts of the world and more often on sea than on land.

[1] English monarchs from James I to George III:


James I (1603–1625)
Charles I (1625–1649)
Elizabeth, m. Frederick V elector of the Palatinate (Winter King of Bohemia)
Charles II (1660–1685)
(1) Anne Hyde, m. James II, (1685–1688)
m. (2) Mary of Modena
Sophia, m. Ernest Augustus elector of Hanover
William III, m. Mary (1688–1702) (1688–1694) Prince of Orange
Anne (1702–1714)
George I (1714–1727)
George II (1727–1760)
James (the Old Pretender)
Frederick Prince of Wales (d. 1751)
Charles Edward (the Young Pretender)
George III (1760–1820)

[2] The troubles with the Stuarts were not entirely over. The son and the grandson of James II — the Old and the Young Pretender — lived in France and engaged in ineffective conspiracies to regain the throne. In 1745 the Young Pretender landed in Scotland, where he found support among the Highland chiefs, and even Edinburgh welcomed "Prince Charlie." With an army of six thousand men he marched into England, but was speedily forced back into Scotland and disastrously defeated and was glad to reach France once more in safety.

QUESTIONS

I. What is the chief interest of the period of the Stuart kings? How were the kingdoms of England and Scotland united on the accession of James I? What were the views of kingship held by James? Name some of the distinguished writers of James's reign. What was Charles's attitude toward Parliament? What was the Petition of Right? What were the chief religious parties in England in the time of Charles I? Describe the events which led to the execution of Charles.

II. What form of government was introduced after Charles's death? How did Cromwell deal with Parliament? In what did Cromwell's strength consist?

III. What led to the restoration of the Stuarts? What was Charles II's attitude toward religious differences? What laws were passed by Parliament against the Puritans? Who were the Dissenters?

IV. Why was James II unpopular? What was the Revolution of 1688? What was the substance of the Bill of Rights? of the Toleration Act?

V. What questions were settled by the accession of William and Mary? On what terms were England and Scotland united in 1707? Explain how a member of the House of Hanover came to the English throne. What is meant by the "balance of power"?

CHAPTER XXIX

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV

I. Position and Character of Louis XIV

626. France at the Accession of Louis XIV. Under the despotic rule of Louis XIV (1643–1715) France enjoyed a commanding influence in European affairs. After the wars of religion were over, the royal authority had been reëstablished by the wise conduct of Henry IV and later, Richelieu. The young monarch now had a kingdom such as no previous French king had enjoyed. The nobles, who for centuries had disputed the power with the king, were no longer feudal lords but only courtiers, for Richelieu had destroyed their castles. The Huguenots, whose claim to a place in the State beside the Catholics had led to the terrible civil wars of the sixteenth century, were reduced in numbers and no longer held fortified towns from which they could defy the king's officers. France had come out of the Thirty Years' War with enlarged territory and increased importance in European affairs.

627. The Theory of the "Divine Right of Kings" in France. Louis XIV held the same idea of kingship that James I had tried in vain to induce the English people to accept (§ 598). God had given kings to men, and it was his will that monarchs should be regarded as his lieutenants and that all those subject to them should obey them absolutely, without asking any questions or making any criticisms; for in submitting to their prince they were really submitting to God himself. If the king were good and wise, his subjects should thank the Lord; if he proved foolish, cruel, or perverse, they must accept their evil ruler as a well-deserved and just punishment which God had sent them for their sins. But in no case might they limit his power or rise against him.

Louis XIV

From Rigaud's painting in the Louvre

628. Different Attitude of English and French toward Absolute Monarchy. Louis XIV had two great advantages over James I. In the first place, the English nation has always shown itself far more reluctant than France to place absolute power in the hands of its rulers. By its Parliament, its courts, and its various declarations of the nation's rights, it had built up traditions which made it impossible for the Stuarts to establish their claim to be absolute rulers. In France, on the other hand, there was no Great Charter or Bill of Rights; the Estates General did not hold the purse strings (§ 481), and the king was permitted to raise money without asking their permission. When Louis XIV took charge of the government, forty-seven years had passed without a meeting of the Estates General, and a century and a quarter was still to elapse before another call to the representatives of the nation was issued, in 1789 (§ 748).

Moreover, the French people placed far more reliance upon a powerful king than the English, perhaps because they were not protected by the sea from their neighbors, as England was.

629. Personal Characteristics of Louis XIV. Louis was a handsome man of elegant and courtly mien and the most exquisite perfection of manner. He had, moreover, a sound judgment and quick apprehension. He was, for a king, a hard worker and spent several hours a day attending to the business of government.

II. Life at the Court of Louis XIV

630. The King's Palace at Versailles. Louis XIV was careful that his surroundings should suit the grandeur of his office. His court was magnificent beyond anything that had been dreamed of in the West. He had an enormous palace constructed at Versailles, just outside of Paris, with interminable halls and apartments and a vast garden stretching away behind it. About this a town was laid out, where those lived who were privileged to be near his Majesty or supply the wants of the royal court. This palace and its outlying buildings, including two or three less gorgeous residences for the king when he occasionally tired of the

ceremony of Versailles, probably cost the nation about a hundred million dollars, in spite of the fact that thousands of peasants and soldiers were forced to turn to and work without pay. The furnishings and decorations were as rich and costly as the palace was splendid. For over a century this magnificent "château" at Versailles continued to be the home of the French kings and the seat of their government.

631. Life at Louis XIV's Court. This splendor and luxury helped to attract the nobility, who no longer lived on their estates in well-fortified castles, planning how they might escape the royal control. They now dwelt in the effulgence of the king's countenance. They saw him to bed at night, and in stately procession they greeted him in the morning. It was deemed a high honor to hand him his shirt as he was being dressed or, at dinner, to provide him with a fresh napkin. Only by living close to the king could the courtiers hope to gain favors, pensions, and highly paid positions for themselves and their friends.

632. Art and Literature in the Reign of Louis XIV. It was, however, as a patron of art and literature that Louis XIV gained much of his celebrity. Molière, who was at once a playwright and an actor, delighted the court with comedies in which he delicately satirized the foibles of his time. Men of letters were generously aided by the king with pensions. A magazine, which still exists, was founded for the promotion of science; an astronomical observatory was built at Paris; and the Royal Library, which possessed only about sixteen thousand volumes, began to grow into that great collection of two and a half million volumes—by far the largest in existence—which today attracts scholars to Paris from all parts of the world.

III. Louis XIV's Warlike Enterprises

633. Louis XIV's Warlike Enterprises. Unfortunately for France, the king's ambitions were by no means exclusively peaceful. Indeed he regarded his wars as his chief glory. He employed a carefully reorganized army and the skill of his generals

Façade of the Palace at Versailles as seen from the Gardens

General View of the Palace of Versailles from the Orangery

The hundreds of orange trees which adorn the gardens in summer are carried into this building in the winter to protect them from the cold

in a series of inexcusable attacks on his neighbors and before he died he had reduced France to the edge of financial ruin.

634. The Invasion of the Netherlands (1667). Louis XIV first turned his attention to the conquest of the Spanish Netherlands, to which he laid claim through his wife, the elder sister of the Spanish king, Charles II (1665–1700). He easily took a number of towns on the border of the Netherlands and then turned south and completely conquered Franche-Comté, an outlying province of Spain.

These conquests alarmed Europe, and especially Holland, which could not afford to have a barrier between it and France removed, for Louis XIV would be an uncomfortable neighbor. A Triple Alliance, composed of Holland, England, and Sweden, was accordingly organized to induce France to make peace with Spain and return Franche-Comté. Louis, however, broke up the Triple Alliance later by inducing Charles II of England to pledge England's assistance in a new war with the Dutch.

635. Louis XIV's Invasion of Holland (1672). Louis felt irritated that little Holland should dare to oppose him. At the head of a hundred thousand men he crossed the Rhine (1672) and easily conquered southern Holland. For the moment the Dutch cause appeared to be lost. But William of Orange showed the spirit of his great ancestor William the Silent; the sluices in the dikes were opened and the country flooded, so the French army was checked before it could take Amsterdam and advance into the north. The emperor, Leopold I, sent an army against Louis, and England deserted him and made peace with Holland.

When a general peace was concluded at the end of six years, the chief provisions were that Holland should be left intact and that France should this time retain Franche-Comté. For the ten years following there was no open war, but Louis seized the important free city of Strassburg and made many other less conspicuous but equally unwarranted additions to his territory.

636. Situation of the Huguenots at the Beginning of Louis XIV's Reign. Louis XIV exhibited as woeful a want of statesmanship in the treatment of his Protestant subjects as in

the prosecution of disastrous wars. The Huguenots, deprived of their former military and political power, had turned to manufacture, trade, and banking; "as rich as a Huguenot" had become a proverb in France. There were perhaps a million of them among fifteen million Frenchmen, and they undoubtedly formed by far the most thrifty and enterprising part of the nation. The Catholic clergy, however, did not cease to urge the complete suppression of heresy.

637. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes and its Results. Louis XIV had scarcely taken the reins of government into his own hands before the perpetual nagging and injustice to which the Protestants had been subjected at all times took a more serious form. Upon one pretense or another their churches were demolished. Children were permitted to renounce Protestantism when they reached the age of seven. Rough dragoons were quartered upon the Huguenots with the hope that the insulting behavior of the soldiers might frighten them into accepting the religion of the king.

At last Louis XIV was led by his officials to believe that practically all the Huguenots had been converted by these harsh measures. In 1685, therefore, he revoked the Edict of Nantes, and the Protestants thereby became outlaws and their ministers subject to the death penalty. Thousands of the Huguenots succeeded in eluding the vigilance of the royal officials and fled, some to England, some to Prussia, some to America, carrying with them their skill and industry to strengthen France's rivals. This was the last great and terrible example in western Europe of that fierce religious intolerance which had produced the Albigensian Crusade, the Spanish Inquisition, and the Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

638. Louis's Operations in the Rhenish Palatinate. Louis XIV now set his heart upon conquering the Palatinate, a Protestant land, to which he easily discovered that he had a claim. The rumor of his intention and the indignation occasioned in Protestant countries by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes resulted in an alliance against the French king headed by William of

Orange (§ 625). Louis speedily justified the suspicions of Europe by a frightful devastation of the Palatinate, burning whole towns and destroying many castles, including the exceptionally beautiful one of the elector at Heidelberg. Ten years later, however, Louis agreed to a peace which put things back much as they were before the struggle began. He was preparing for the final and most ambitious undertaking of his life, which precipitated the longest and bloodiest war of all his warlike reign.

639. The Question of the Spanish Succession. The king of Spain, Charles II (§ 634), was childless and brotherless, and Europe had long been discussing what would become of his vast realms when his sickly existence should come to an end. Louis XIV had married one of his sisters, and the emperor, Leopold I, another, and these two ambitious rulers had been considering for some time how they might divide the Spanish possessions between the Bourbons (as the descendants of Henry IV of France were called) and the Hapsburgs. But when Charles II died, in 1700, it was discovered that he had left a will in which he made Louis's younger grandson, Philip, the heir to his twenty-two crowns, but on the condition that France and Spain should never be united.

640. Louis's Grandson, Philip, becomes King of Spain. Should Philip become king of Spain, Louis and his family would control all of southwestern Europe from Holland to Sicily, as well as a great part of North and South America. This would mean the establishment of an empire more powerful than that of Charles V. It was clear that the disinherited emperor and the ever-watchful William of Orange, now king of England (§§ 620, 625), would never permit this unprecedented extension of French influence. They had already shown themselves ready to make great sacrifices in order to check far less serious aggressions on the part of the French king. Nevertheless, family pride and personal ambition led Louis criminally to accept the will and risk a terrible war.

641. The War of the Spanish Succession. King William soon succeeded in forming a new Grand Alliance (1701) in which Louis's old enemies England, Holland, and the emperor were

the most important members. The long War of the Spanish Succession was more general than the Thirty Years' War; even in America there was fighting between French and English colonists, which passes in American histories under the name of Queen Anne's War. All the more important battles went against the French, and after ten years of war, which was rapidly ruining the country by the destruction of its people and its wealth, Louis XIV was willing to consider some compromise, and after long discussion a peace was arranged in 1713.

642. The Treaty of Utrecht (1713). The Treaty of Utrecht changed the map of Europe as no previous treaty had done, not even that of Westphalia. Each of the chief combatants got his share of the Spanish booty over which they had been fighting. The Bourbon Philip V was permitted to retain Spain and its colonies on condition that the Spanish and French crowns should never rest on the same head. To Austria fell the Spanish Netherlands, hereafter called the Austrian Netherlands, which continued to form a barrier between Holland and France. Holland received certain fortresses to make its position still more secure. The Spanish possessions in Italy, that is, Naples and Milan, were also given to Austria, and in this way Austria got the hold on Italy which it retained until 1866. From France, England acquired Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay region, and so began the expulsion of the French from North America. Besides these American provinces she received the rock and fortress of Gibraltar, which still gives her command of the narrow entrance to the Mediterranean.

643. The Development of International Law. The period of Louis XIV is remarkable for the development of international law. The incessant wars and great alliances involving several powers made increasingly clear the need of well-defined rules governing states in their relations with one another both in peace and in war. It was of the utmost importance to determine, for instance, the rights of ambassadors and of the vessels of neutral powers not engaged in the war, and what should be considered fair conduct in warfare and in the treatment of prisoners.

The first great systematic treatise on international law was published by Grotius in 1625, when the horrors of the Thirty Years' War were impressing men's minds with the necessity of finding some means other than war of settling disputes between nations. While the rules laid down by Grotius and later writers have, as we must sadly admit, by no means put an end to war, they have prevented many conflicts by increasing the ways in which nations may come to an understanding with one another through their ambassadors, without recourse to arms.

Louis XIV outlived his son and his grandson and left a sadly demoralized kingdom to his five-year-old great-grandson, Louis XV (1715–1774). The national treasury was empty, the people were reduced in numbers and were in a miserable state, and the army, once the finest in Europe, was in no condition to gain further victories.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the condition of France at the accession of Louis XIV. What were Louis's ideas of kingship? Compare the attitude of the English and French toward absolute monarchy.

II. Describe the life at the court of Versailles. How did Louis XIV promote literature and art?

III. What were the general results of Louis's warlike enterprises? What was Louis's attitude toward the Huguenots? What were the results of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes? What were the causes of the War of the Spanish Succession? What were the provisions of the Peace of Utrecht? Why was Louis's reign a favorable time for the development of international law? What do you understand by "international law"?

CHAPTER XXX

RUSSIA AND PRUSSIA BECOME EUROPEAN POWERS

I. The Beginnings of Russia; Peter the Great

644. Emergence of Two New European Powers. We must now turn to the study of two European powers which hitherto it has not been necessary to mention—Russia and Prussia. During the past two hundred years, however, these states have played an increasingly important part in the affairs of Europe and the world. The aggressions of Prussia finally united most of the civilized nations against her in the World War, the results of which will affect mankind more profoundly than any previous event in history. The Bolshevik revolution in Russia—hastened by the war—seemed to many to threaten the whole political, social, and economic order. The decisions of the leaders of the Russian workmen and peasants are now viewed with more concern throughout the world than the decrees of any of the old-fashioned kings who have been able to hold their thrones. We must therefore turn to the shores of the Baltic and the vast plains of eastern Europe in order to see how these two states grew up and became actors in the great drama of humanity.

645. The Slavic Peoples. We have had little occasion, in dealing with the history of western Europe, to refer to the Slavic peoples, to whom the Russians, Poles, Bohemians, Serbians, and many other nations of eastern Europe belong. Together they form the most numerous race in Europe, but only recently has their history begun to merge into that of the world at large. Before the World War, which began in 1914, the realms of the Tsar which lay in Europe exceeded in extent those of all the other rulers of the continent put together, and yet they were scarcely more than a quarter of his whole dominion, which embraced in addition great

EUROPE
after the Treaties of
UTRECHT AND RASTADT
1713-1714
Boundary of the Empire
0 100 200 300
Scale of Miles.
KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
Scotland
Edinburgh
Belfast
Dublin
Ireland
Wales
England
London
North
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Amsterdam
Utrecht
Oudenarde
Fontenoy
R. Scine
Paris
Versailles
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Avignon
Barcelona
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Madrid
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon
R. Tagus
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
(To England)
Balearic Isles
Minorca
(To England)
Majorca
Iviça
MEDIT
AFRI
55
50
45
40
35
15
10
5
0
10 Longitude West
Longitude East 5

KINGDOM OF
SWEDEN
Copenhagen
Baltic Sea
Königsberg
Prussia
Stralsund
Swedish Pomerania
Bremen
Verden
Prussia
Berlin
R. Vistula
POLAND
Hanover
Saxony
Silesia
Bohemia
Prague
THE EMPIRE
Moravia
Electorate of Bavaria
Arch. Duchy of Austria
Vienna
Rastadt
Blenheim
Strassburg
Munich
Baden
Tyrol
Buda
Pesth
Kingdom of Hungary
Transylvania
Temesvar
Republic of Venice
Venice
R. Danube
Piacenza
Dy. of Parma
Dy. of Modena
States of the Church
Lucca
Florence
Gr. Dy. of Tuscany
Ragusa
Cattaro
OTTOMAN DOMINIONS
Rome
Naples
(To Austria)
Palermo
Messina
Sicily
(To Savoy)
(later, 1720, to Austria)
Morea
Candia
SEA
10
15
20
25
30
55
50
45
40
35

stretches of territory in northern and central Asia—an empire nearly three times the size of the United States.

The Slavs, who belonged to the Indo-European races (§ 50), were settled in southern Russia long before the Christian Era. When the Germans began to invade the Roman Empire in the fifth century, the Slavs followed their example, and many of them settled in the Balkan peninsula as far west as the Adriatic, where their descendants, especially the Serbians, still live. Other Slavic hordes to the north found their way into Germany. The German emperors, beginning with Charlemagne (§ 328), succeeded in pushing them back, but the Bohemians and Moravians, who are Slavs, still hold an advance position on the borders of Germany.

646. Beginnings of Russia. In the ninth century some of the Northmen invaded the districts to the east of the Baltic, while their relatives were causing grievous trouble in France and England (§§ 334, 365, 367). It is generally supposed that one of their leaders, Rurik, was the first to consolidate the Slavic tribes about Novgorod into a sort of state, in 862. Rurik's successor extended the bounds of the new empire to the south as far as the Dnieper River. The word "Russia" is probably derived from *Rous,* the name given by the neighboring Finns to the Northmen adventurers. Before the end of the tenth century the Greek form of Christianity was introduced and the Russian ruler was baptized.

647. Influence of the Tartar Invasion. Russia is geographically nothing more than an extension of the great plain of northern Asia. It was exposed, therefore, to the invasion of the Tartars or Mongols, who swept in from the east in the thirteenth century. After conquering northern China and central Asia they overran Russia, which had fallen apart into numerous principalities. The Tartars exacted tribute from the Russians, but left them undisturbed in their laws and religion.

When the Mongol power began to decline, however, and the princes of Moscow had grown stronger, they ventured (in 1480) to kill the Mongol ambassadors sent to demand tribute from them and thus freed themselves from the Mongol yoke. But the Tartar

and music. He was a particular admirer of the French and preferred their language to his own. No sooner had he become king, however, than he suddenly developed marvelous energy and skill in warlike enterprises. Chance favored his designs.

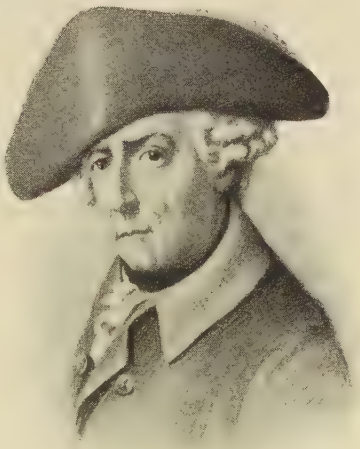
657. Frederick's Attack upon Silesia. The emperor Charles VI, the last representative of the direct male line of the Hapsburgs, died in 1740, just a few months before Frederick ascended the throne, leaving only a daughter, Maria Theresa, to inherit his vast and miscellaneous dominions. He had induced the other European powers to promise to accept his last will, in which he left everything to the young Maria Theresa, but she had no sooner begun to reign than her greedy neighbors prepared to seize her lands. Her greatest enemy was the newly crowned king of Prussia, who at first pretended friendship for her. Frederick determined to seize Silesia, a strip of Hapsburg territory lying to the southeast of Brandenburg, which would increase his dominions by about one third. He accordingly marched his army into the coveted district and occupied the important city of Breslau without declaring war or offering any excuse except a vague claim to a portion of the land.

658. The War of the Austrian Succession. France, stimulated by Frederick's example, joined with Bavaria in an attack upon Maria Theresa. It seemed for a time as if her struggle to keep her realm intact would be in vain, but the loyalty of all the various peoples under her scepter was roused by her extraordinary courage and energy. Although the French were driven back, Maria Theresa was forced to grant Silesia to Frederick in order to induce him to retire from the war. Finally, England and Holland joined in an alliance for maintaining the balance of power, for they had no desire to see France annex the Austrian Netherlands. A few years later, however (1748), all the powers, tired of the war,—which is known as the War of the Austrian Succession,—agreed to lay down their arms.

659. The Seven Years' War; the Alliance between France and Austria. Maria Theresa was by no means reconciled to the loss of Silesia, and she began to lay her plans for expelling the

perfidious Frederick and regaining her lost territory. This led to one of the most important wars in modern history, in which not only almost every European power joined, but which involved the whole world, from the Indian rajahs of Hindustan to the colonists of Virginia and New England. This Seven Years' War (1756–1763) will be considered in its broader aspects in the next chapter. We shall mention here only the part played in it by the king of Prussia.

Maria Theresa's ambassador at Paris was so skillful in his negotiations with the French court that in 1756 he induced it, in spite of its two hundred years of hostility to the House of Hapsburg, to enter into an alliance with Austria against Prussia. Russia, Sweden, and Saxony also agreed to join in a concerted attack on Prussia. Their armies, coming as they did from every point of the compass, threatened the complete annihilation of Frederick and his kingdom.



FREDERICK II OF PRUSSIA, CALLED "THE GREAT"

660. Frederick's Victorious Defense. However, it was in this war that Frederick earned his title of "the Great," and showed himself the equal of the ablest generals the world has seen. Undaunted by the overwhelming numbers of his enemies and by the loss of several battles, Frederick defeated the French and his German enemies in the most famous, perhaps, of his battles, at Rossbach in 1757. A month later he routed the Austrians.

Money paid to him by the English government enabled him to keep up the fight. The accession of a new Tsar, who was an ardent admirer of Frederick, led Russia to conclude peace with

The kingship was not hereditary in Poland, but whenever the ruler died the nobles assembled and chose a new one, commonly a foreigner. These elections were tumultuous, and the various European powers regularly interfered, by force or bribery, to secure the election of a candidate who, they believed, would favor their interests.

663. The Polish Nobles and Peasants. The nobles in Poland were numerous. There were perhaps a million and a half of them, mostly very poor, owning only a trifling bit of land. There was a saying that the poor noble's dog, even if he sat in the middle of his master's estate, was sure to have his tail upon a neighbor's land. There was no middle class except in the few German towns. The peasants were miserable indeed. They had sunk from serfs to slaves, over whom their lords had even the right of life and death.

664. First Partition of Poland (1772). It required no great insight to foresee that Poland was in danger of falling a prey to her greedy and powerful neighbors,—Russia, Prussia, and Austria,—who clamped in the unfortunate kingdom on all sides and coveted her territory.

The ruler of Russia was now the famous Catherine II, who proved herself one of the most efficient of queens. She arranged with Frederick the Great to prevent any improvement in Poland and to keep up and encourage the disorder. Finally the rulers of Prussia, Russia, and Austria agreed, in 1772, each to take a slice of the unhappy kingdom.

Austria was assigned a strip inhabited by almost three million Poles and Russians and thus added two new kinds of people and two new languages to her already varied collection of races and tongues. Prussia was given a smaller piece, but it was the coveted West Prussia, which she needed to fill out her boundaries, and its inhabitants were to a considerable extent Germans and Protestants. Russia's strip, on the east, was inhabited entirely by Russians.

665. Second and Third Partitions (1793, 1795). Russia and Prussia continued to promote disorder in Poland and twenty years

later declared that they could not put up any longer with such a dangerous neighbor and proceeded to a second partition. Prussia cut deep into Poland, added a million and a half of Poles to her subjects, and acquired the towns of Thorn, Danzig, and Posen.

THE PARTITION OF POLAND

Russia's gains were three millions of people, who at least belonged to her own race. Two years later the Polish king was compelled to abdicate, and the remnants of the dismembered kingdom were divided, after much bitter contention, among Austria, Russia, and Prussia. In the three partitions which, until the coming of the World War in our own day, blotted out the kingdom of Poland from the map of Europe, Russia received nearly twice the combined shares of Austria and Prussia.

IV. The Austrian Realm; Maria Theresa

666. The Hapsburgs in Austria. While the Hohenzollerns of Prussia from their capital at Berlin had been extending their power over northern Germany, the great House of Hapsburg, established in the southeastern corner of Germany, with its capital at Vienna, had been grouping together, by conquest or inheritance, the vast realm over much of which it ruled down to the end of the World War, in 1918. It will be remembered that Charles V, shortly after his accession, ceded to his brother, Ferdinand I, the German or Austrian possessions of the House of Hapsburg (§ 558), while he himself retained the Spanish, Burgundian, and Italian dominions. Ferdinand, by a fortunate marriage with the heiress of the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, greatly augmented his territory. Hungary was, however, almost completely conquered by the Turks at that time, and till the end of the seventeenth century the energies of the Austrian rulers were largely absorbed in a long struggle against the Mohammedans who threatened central Europe for many years.

667. Conquests of the Turks in Europe. A Turkish people from western Asia had, at the opening of the fourteenth century, established themselves in western Asia Minor under their leader, Othman (d. 1326). It was from him that they derived their name of Ottoman Turks, to distinguish them from the Seljuk Turks, with whom the crusaders had come into contact. The leaders of the Ottoman Turks showed great energy. They not only extended their Asiatic territory far toward the east, and later into Africa, but they gained a footing in Europe as early as 1353. They gradually occupied the territory about Constantinople, and a hundred years later succeeded in capturing the ancient capital of the Eastern Empire, which came under their sway in the year 1453.

This advance of the Turks naturally aroused grave fears in the states of western Europe lest they too might be deprived of their independence. The brunt of the defense against the common foe devolved upon Venice and the German Hapsburgs, who

carried on an almost continuous war with the Turks for nearly two centuries. As late as 1683 the Mohammedans collected a large force and besieged Vienna, which might very well have fallen into their hands had it not been for the timely assistance which the city received from the king of Poland. From this time on the power of the Turks in Europe rapidly decreased. They gradually lost their hold, and the Hapsburgs were able to regain the whole territory of Hungary and Transylvania. Their possession of these lands, which they held until 1918, was recognized by the Sultan in 1699.

668. Heterogeneous Population under the Hapsburgs. The conquest of Silesia by Frederick the Great was more than a severe blow to the pride of Maria Theresa; for, since it was inhabited by Germans, its loss lessened the Hapsburg power inside the empire. In extent of territory the Hapsburgs more than made up for it by the partitions of Poland, but since the Poles were an alien race they added one more difficulty to the very difficult problem of ruling so many various peoples, each of whom had a different language and different customs and institutions. The Hapsburg possessions were inhabited by Germans in Austria proper, a Slav people (the Czechs) mixed with Germans in Bohemia and Moravia, Poles in Galicia, Hungarians or Magyars (along with Rumanians and smaller groups of other peoples) in Hungary, Croats and Slovenes (both Slavs) in the south, Italians in Milan and Tuscany, and Flemish and Walloons in the Netherlands.

The problems which confronted Maria Theresa and her son Joseph II were much more difficult than those of France or England. Poles, Italians, Magyars, and Germans could never be united into one state by such common interests as Englishmen or Frenchmen have felt so keenly in the last two centuries. Instead of fusing together to form a nation, the peoples ruled over by the Hapsburgs have been on such bad terms with each other that there has been constant friction, and even rebellion in the nineteenth century against the government at Vienna. When the Hapsburgs became involved in the terrible disaster of the World War they finally split apart, forming separate nations.

QUESTIONS

I. Why is the study of the development of Russia and Prussia of special interest today? What peoples belong to the Slavic race? What was the extent of the realms of the Tsar of Russia in 1914? In what portions of eastern Europe were the Slavs settled at the time of the barbarian invasions? Tell what you can of the early history of Russia. What were some of the results of the Tartar invasion in Russia? What were the boundaries of Russia upon the accession of Peter the Great? What territory did he add? What reforms and changes did Peter introduce?

II. How did the elector of Brandenburg come to be the king of Prussia? How did the early Hohenzollerns undertake to develop Prussia? Explain the circumstances which led to the War of the Austrian Succession. Give an account of the Seven Years' War. Show why so many nations became involved in the war. How did Frederick earn his title of "the Great"?

III. What were the internal weaknesses of Poland which made her an easy prey for her neighbors? Describe the partitions of Poland with the use of the map.

IV. Review briefly the history of the Hapsburgs. What were their possessions at the time of Maria Theresa? Why has Austria always been concerned in the affairs of Turkey? What peoples were under the rule of the Hapsburgs? Locate these on the map.

CHAPTER XXXI

HOW ENGLAND BECAME QUEEN OF THE OCEAN

I. How Europe began to extend its Commerce over the Whole World

669. England establishes her Supremacy on the Sea. In the last chapter we reviewed the progress of affairs in eastern Europe and noted the development of two new European powers, Prussia and Russia, which have for the past two centuries played a great part in the affairs of the world. In the West, England was rapidly becoming the most important state. While she did not greatly influence the course of the wars on the Continent, she was already beginning to make herself mistress of the seas—a position which she still holds, owing to her colonies and her unrivaled fleet.

At the close of the War of the Spanish Succession (§§ 641, 642) her navy was superior to that of any other power, for both France and Spain had been greatly weakened by the long conflict. Fifty years after the Treaty of Utrecht, England had succeeded in driving out the French both from North America and from India and in laying the foundations of her vast empire beyond the seas, which secured for her in the nineteenth century the commercial supremacy of the world.

670. Vast Extent of the European Colonial Dominion. The long and disastrous wars of the eighteenth century were much more than merely quarrels of monarchs. They were caused also by commercial and colonial rivalries, and they extended to the most distant parts of the world. From the seventeenth century on, the internal affairs of each country have been constantly influenced by the demands of its merchants and the achievements of its sailors and soldiers, fighting rival nations or alien peoples

thousands of miles from London, Paris, or Vienna. The great manufacturing towns of England—Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham—owe their prosperity to India, China, and Australia. Liverpool, Amsterdam, and Trieste, with their long lines of docks and warehouses and their fleets of merchant vessels, would dwindle away if their trade should be cut off from distant lands and were confined to the demands of their own country and of their European neighbors.

Europe includes scarcely a twelfth of the land upon the globe, and yet over three fifths of the world is today either occupied by peoples of European origin or ruled by European states. The possessions of France in Asia and Africa exceed the entire area of Europe. The British Empire, of which the island of Great Britain is but a hundredth part, includes one fifth of the world's dry land. Moreover, European peoples have populated the United States, Mexico, and South America.

The widening of the field of European history is one of the most striking features of modern times. Though the Greeks and Romans carried on a large trade in silks, spices, and precious stones with India and China, they really knew little of the world beyond southern Europe, northern Africa, and western Asia, and much that they knew was forgotten during the Middle Ages. Slowly, however, the interest in the East revived, and travelers began to add to the scanty knowledge handed down from antiquity.

671. Colonial Policy of Portugal, Spain, and Holland. The voyages which had brought America and India within the ken of Europe during the fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries were, as we know, mainly undertaken by the Portuguese and the Spaniards. Portugal was the first to realize the advantage of extending her commerce by establishing stations in India after Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope in 1498 (§ 498), and later by founding posts on the Brazilian coast of South America; then Spain laid claim to Mexico, the West Indies, and a great part of South America. These two powers later found a formidable rival in the Dutch, who succeeded in expelling the Portuguese from a number of their settlements in India and the

ENGLAND
FRANCE AND SPAIN
IN AMERICA
1750
0 100 200 300 400 500 1000
Scale of Miles
THE M-N. WORKS
UNITED STATES
NEW SPAIN
RUPERT'S LAND
HUDSON BAY CO.
CANADA OR NEW FRANCE
LOUISIANA
NEWFOUNDLAND
GREENLAND
Baffin Bay
Hudson Bay
Lake Winnipeg
Lake of the Woods
Nelson R.
Saskatchewan R.
Albany R.
Moose R.
Rupert R.
St. Whale R.
Grand R.
St. Lawrence R.
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Ohio R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Rio Grande
Colorado R.
Columbia R.
Detroit
Ft. Duquesne
Philadelphia
Vincennes
Kaskaskia
Baltimore
Jamestown (1607)
Wilmington
Albany
Hartford
Boston
Plymouth
Providence
New York
Montreal
Ticonderoga
Quebec (1608)
Halifax
Cape Breton I.
Louisbourg
Nova Scotia
Bermuda Is.
Charleston
Savannah (1733)
Pensacola
New Orleans (1718)
St. Augustine (1565)
Bahamas
Santa Fe (1598)
Mexico
Havana
CUBA
JAMAICA
HAITI
San Domingo
PORTO RICO
BELIZE
GUATEMALA
CARIBBEAN SEA
GULF OF MEXICO
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTH AMERICA
PERU

Spice Islands and brought Java, Sumatra, and other tropical regions under Dutch control.

672. The French and English in North America. In North America the chief rivals were England and France, both of which succeeded in establishing colonies in the early part of the seventeenth century. Englishmen settled at Jamestown in Virginia (1607), then in New England, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and elsewhere. The colonies owed their growth in part to the influx of refugees,—Puritans, Catholics, and Quakers,—who exiled themselves in the hope of gaining the right freely to enjoy their particular forms of religion. On the other hand, many came in order to better their fortunes in the New World, and thousands of bond servants and slaves were brought over as laborers. So the population of the English colonies was very diversified.

Just as Jamestown was being founded by the English the French were making their first successful settlements in Nova Scotia and at Quebec. Although England made no attempt to oppose it, the French occupation of Canada progressed very slowly. In 1673 Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, and Joliet, a merchant, explored a part of the Mississippi River. La Salle sailed down the great stream and named the new country which he entered Louisiana, after his king, Louis XIV. The city of New Orleans was founded, near the mouth of the river, in 1718, and the French established a chain of forts between it and Montreal.

The contest between England and France for the supremacy in North America was responsible for almost continuous border war, which burst out more fiercely with each war in the Old World. Finally, England was able, by the Treaty of Utrecht, to establish herself in the northern regions, for France thereby ceded to her Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the borders of Hudson Bay (§ 642).

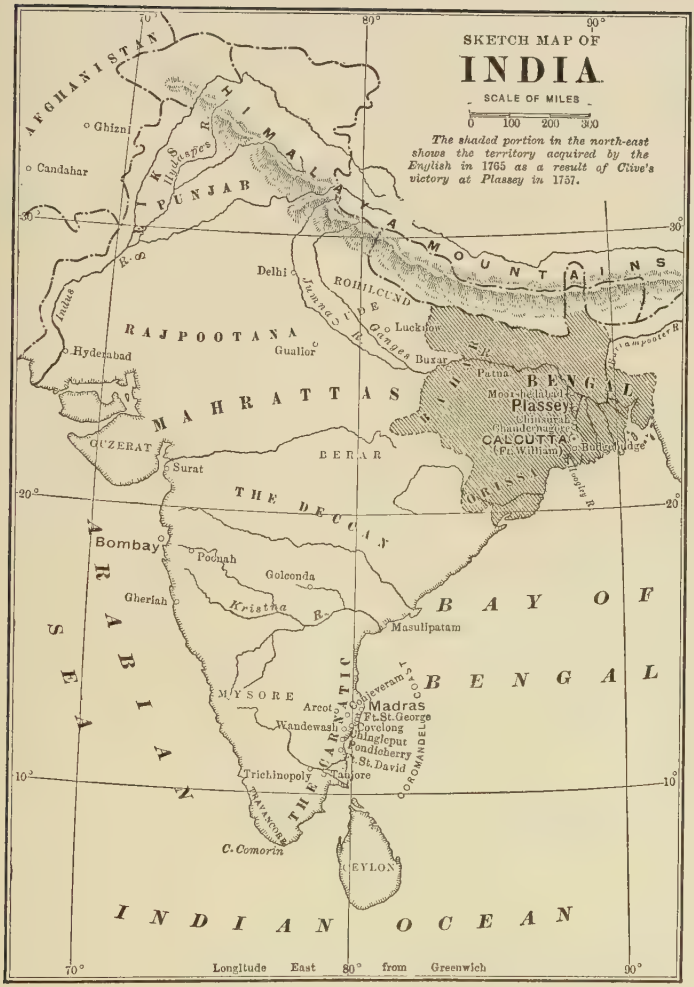
While the English in North America at the beginning of the Seven Years' War numbered over a million, the French did not reach a hundred thousand.

II. The Contest between France and England for Colonial Empire

673. Extent of India. The rivalry of England and France was not confined to the wildernesses of North America, occupied by half a million of savage red men. At the opening of the eighteenth century both countries had gained a firm foothold on the borders of the vast Indian empire, inhabited by two hundred millions of people and the seat of an ancient and highly developed civilization. One may gain some idea of the extent of India by laying the map of Hindustan upon that of the United States. If the southernmost point, Cape Comorin, be placed over New Orleans, Calcutta will lie nearly over New York City, and Bombay in the neighborhood of Des Moines, Iowa.

674. The Mongolian Emperors of Hindustan. A generation after Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape, a Mongolian conqueror, Baber, had established his empire in India. The dynasty of Mongolian rulers which he founded was able to keep the whole country under its control for nearly two centuries; then after the death of the Great Mogul Aurungzeb, in 1707, their empire began to fall apart in much the same way as that of Charlemagne had done. Like the counts and dukes of the Carolingian period, the emperor's officials, the subahdars and nawabs (nabobs), and the rajahs (Hindu princes who had been subjugated by the Mongols) had gradually got the power in their respective districts into their own hands. Although the emperor, or Great Mogul, as the English called him, continued to maintain himself in his capital of Delhi, he could no longer be said to rule the country at the opening of the eighteenth century, when the French and English were beginning to turn their attention seriously to his coasts.

675. English and French Settlements in India. In the time of Charles I (1639) a village had been purchased by the English East India Company on the southeastern coast of Hindustan, which grew into the important English station of Madras. About the same time posts were established in the district of Bengal, and later Calcutta was fortified. Bombay was already an English


SKETCH MAP OF
INDIA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300
The shaded portion in the north-east shows the territory acquired by the English in 1765 as a result of Clive's victory at Plassey in 1757.
AFGHANISTAN
Ghizni
Candahar
HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS
PUNJAB
Indus R.
Delhi
Jumna R.
ROHILCUND
Ganges R.
Lucknow
Buxar
Patna
BENGAL
Moorshedabad
Plassey
Chinsurah
Chandernagore
CALCUTTA
(Ft. William)
Hooghly R.
Brahmapooter R.
RAJPOOTANA
Gualior
Hyderabad
MAHRATTAS
BERAR
GUZERAT
Surat
THE DECCAN
Bombay
Poonah
Golconda
Gheriah
Kristna R.
Masulipatam
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
MYSORE
Arcot
Madras
Ft. St. George
Wandewash
Tovelong
Pondicherry
St. David
Trichinopoly
Tanjore
Coleroon R.
COROMANDEL COAST
MALABAR COAST
C. Comorin
CEYLON
INDIAN OCEAN
70°
80°
90°
10°
20°
30°
Longitude East from Greenwich

station. The Mongolian emperor of India at first scarcely deigned to notice the presence of a few foreigners on the fringe of his vast realms, but before the end of the seventeenth century hostilities began between the English East India Company and the native rulers, which made it plain that the foreigners would be forced to defend themselves.

The English had to face not only the opposition of the natives but that of a European power as well. France also had an East India Company, and at the opening of the eighteenth century Pondicherry was its chief center, with a population of sixty thousand, of which two hundred only were Europeans. It soon became apparent that there was little danger from the Great Mogul; so the native princes and the French and English were left to fight among themselves for the supremacy.

676. Clive renders English Influence Supreme in India. At the moment that the Seven Years' War was beginning, bad news reached Madras from the English settlement of Calcutta, about a thousand miles to the northeast. The nawab of Bengal had seized the property of some English merchants and imprisoned one hundred and forty-five Englishmen in a little room,—the Black Hole of Calcutta,—where most of them died of suffocation before morning. The English were fortunate in finding a leader of military skill and energy. Robert Clive, although but twenty-five years old, organized a force of Sepoys, as the native soldiers were called by the English. He hastened to Bengal, and with a little army of nine hundred Europeans and fifteen hundred Sepoys gained a great victory at Plassey, in 1757, over the nawab's army of fifty thousand men. He then replaced the nawab of Bengal by a man whom he believed to be friendly to the English. Before the Seven Years' War was over, the English had won Pondicherry and deprived the French of all their former influence in the region of Madras.

677. England's Gains in the Seven Years' War. When the Seven Years' War was brought to an end, in 1763, by the Treaty of Paris, it was clear that England had gained far more than any other power. She was to retain her two forts commanding the

Mediterranean — Gibraltar, and Port Mahon on the island of Minorca; in America, France ceded to her the vast region of Canada and Nova Scotia, as well as several of the islands in the West Indies. The region beyond the Mississippi was ceded to Spain by France, who thus gave up all her claims to North America. In India, France, it is true, received back the towns which the English had taken from her, but she had permanently lost her influence over the native rulers, for Clive had made the English name greatly feared among them.

III. Revolt of the American Colonies from England

678. England Victorious in the Struggle in America (1756–1763). Just before the Seven Years' War came, in 1756, the French and English had begun their struggle in America as well as in India. In America the so-called French and Indian War began in 1754 between the English and French colonists. Supported by money and men from the mother country the English colonists captured the French forts at Ticonderoga and Niagara; Quebec was won in Wolfe's heroic attack, 1759; and the next year all Canada submitted to the English.

679. England long left her Colonies very Free. England had, however, no sooner added Canada to her possessions and driven the French from the broad region which lay between her dominions and the Mississippi than she lost the better part of her American empire by the revolt of the irritated colonists, who refused to submit to her interference in their government and commerce.

The English settlers had been left alone, for the most part, by the home government and had enjoyed *far greater freedom* in the management of their affairs than had the French and Spanish colonists. Virginia established its own assembly in 1619, and Massachusetts became almost an independent commonwealth. Regular constitutions developed, which were later used as the basis for those of the several states when the colonies gained

their independence. By the end of the Seven Years' War the colonists numbered over two millions. Their rapidly increasing wealth and strength, their free life in a new land, the confidence they had gained in their successful conflict with the French,—all combined to render interference of the British government intolerable to them.

680. Navigation Laws. England had, like Spain, France, and other colonizing countries, enacted a number of navigation and trade laws by which she tried to keep all the benefits of colonial trade and industry to herself. Early navigation laws were passed under Cromwell and Charles II which were specially directed against the enterprising Dutch traders. They provided that all products grown or manufactured in Asia, Africa, or America should be imported into England or her colonies only in English ships. Thus, if a Dutch merchant vessel laden with cloves, cinnamon, teas, and silks from the Far East anchored in the harbor of New York, the inhabitants could not lawfully buy of the ship's master, no matter how much lower his prices were than those offered by English shippers. Furthermore, another act provided that no commodity of European production or manufacture should be imported into any of the colonies without being shipped through England and carried in ships built in England or the colonies. So if a colonial merchant wished to buy French wines or Dutch watches, he would have to order through English merchants. Again, if a colonist desired to sell to a European merchant such products as the law permitted him to sell to foreigners, he had to export them in English ships and even send them by way of England.

681. Trade Laws. Certain articles in which the colonists were interested, such as sugar, tobacco, cotton, and indigo, could be sold only in England. Other things they were forbidden to export at all, or even to produce. For instance, though they possessed the finest furs in abundance, they could not export any caps or hats to England or to any foreign country. The colonists had built up a lucrative lumber and provision trade with the French West Indies, from which they imported large quantities of rum,

sugar, and molasses, but in order to keep this trade within British dominions, the importation of these commodities was forbidden.

682. The Colonists evade the English Restrictions. The colonists naturally evaded these laws as far as possible; they carried on a flourishing smuggling trade and built up industries in spite of them. Tobacco, sugar, hemp, flax, and cotton were grown and cloth was manufactured. Furnaces, foundries, and nail and wire mills supplied pig and bar iron, chains, anchors, and other hardware. It is clear that where so many people were interested in both manufacturing and commerce a loud protest was sure to be raised against any attempts of England to restrict the business of the colonists in favor of her own merchants.

But previous to 1763 the navigation and trade laws had been loosely enforced, and business men of high standing in their communities ventured to neglect them and engage in illegal trade, which from the standpoint of the mother country constituted "smuggling." English statesmen had been too busy, however, during the previous century with the great struggle at home and the wars with Louis XIV to stop this unlawful trade.

683. Change in English Colonial Policy after 1763. With the close of the successful Seven Years' War, and the conquest of Canada and the Ohio valley, arrangements had to be made to protect the new territories and meet the expenses incident to the great enlargement of the British Empire. The home government naturally argued that the prosperous colonists might make some contribution in the form of taxes to the expenses of the late war and the maintenance of a small body of troops for guarding the new possessions.

684. The Stamp Act. This led to the passage of the Stamp Act, which taxed the colonists by forcing them to pay the English government for the stamps which were required on leases, deeds, and other legal documents in order to make them binding. This does not appear to modern historians to have been a tyrannical act, and it was certainly perfectly legal. But it stirred up some of the leaders among the colonists, who declared that they had already borne the brunt of the recent war and that Parliament

had no right to tax them, since they were not represented directly in that body. Whatever may have been the merits of their arguments, representatives of the colonies met in New York in 1765 and denounced the Stamp Act as indicating "a manifest tendency to subvert the rights and liberties of the colonists."

The unpopular stamp tax was repealed, in spite of the opposition of King George III, who, with some of the members of Parliament, thought that the colonists should be punished rather than conciliated. Others were very friendly to them, and a proposal was made to permit the colonists to tax themselves, but Benjamin Franklin, then in England, sadly admitted that they would not consent to do so. Parliament then decided to raise a certain amount by duties on glass, paper, and tea, and a board was established to secure a stricter enforcement of the old and hitherto largely neglected navigation laws and other restrictions. The protests of the colonists led Parliament, however, to remove all the duties except that on tea, which was retained owing to the active lobbying of the East India Company, whose interests were at stake.

685. The Boston Tea Party (1773); Attitude of Parliament toward the Colonists. The effort to make the Americans pay a very moderate duty on tea, and to force upon the Boston markets the Company's tea at a very low price, produced trouble in 1773. Those who had supplies of "smuggled" tea to dispose of, and who were likely to be undersold even after the small duty was paid, raised a new cry of illegal taxation, and a band of young men was got together in Boston who boarded a tea ship in the harbor and threw the cargo into the water. This so-called Boston Tea Party fanned the slumbering embers of discord between the colonies and the mother country.

A considerable body in Parliament were opposed to coercing the colonists. Burke, perhaps the most able member of the House of Commons, urged the ministry to leave the Americans to tax themselves, but George III, and the Tory party in Parliament, could not forgive the colonists for their opposition. They believed that the trouble was largely confined to New England and could

easily be overcome. In 1774, acts were passed prohibiting the landing and shipping of goods at Boston; and the colony of Massachusetts was deprived of its former right to choose its judges and the members of the upper house of its legislature, who were thereafter to be selected by the king.

686. The Continental Congresses. These measures, instead of bringing Massachusetts to terms, so roused the apprehension of the rest of the colonists that a congress of representatives from all the colonies was held at Philadelphia in 1774 to see what could be done. This congress decided that all trade with Great Britain should cease until the grievances of the colonies had been redressed. The following year the Americans attacked the British troops at Lexington, and later made a brave stand against them in the battle of Bunker Hill. The second congress decided to prepare for war and raised an army which was put under the command of George Washington, a Virginia planter who had gained some distinction in the late French and Indian War.

687. Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776). Up to this time few people had openly advocated the separation of the colonies from the mother country, but the proposed compromises came to nothing, and in July, 1776, Congress declared that "these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent."

The party which favored an attempt to gain independence was a minority of the population. The so-called "Tories" who opposed separation from England were perhaps as numerous as the "patriots" who advocated the American Revolution; and the other third of the colonists appear to have been indifferent.

688. The United States receives Aid from France. The Declaration of Independence naturally excited great interest in France. The outcome of the Seven Years' War had been most lamentable for that country, and any trouble which came to her old enemy England could not but be a source of congratulation to the French. The United States, therefore, regarded France as their natural ally and immediately sent Benjamin Franklin to Versailles in the hope of obtaining the aid of the new French king, Louis XVI. The king's ministers were uncertain whether

the colonies could long maintain their resistance against the overwhelming strength of the mother country. It was only after the Americans had defeated Burgoyne at Saratoga that France, in 1778, concluded a treaty with the United States in which the independence of the new republic was recognized. This was equivalent to declaring war upon England. The French government then aided the colonies with loans, and enthusiasm for the Americans became so great in France that a number of the younger nobles, the most conspicuous of whom was the Marquis of Lafayette, crossed the Atlantic to fight as volunteers in the American army.

689. Success of the Revolution. There was so much difference of opinion in England in regard to the expediency of the war, and so much sympathy in Parliament for the colonists, that the military operations were not carried on with much vigor. Nevertheless, the Americans found it no easy task to win the war. In spite of the skill and heroic self-sacrifice of Washington, they lost more battles than they gained. It is extremely doubtful whether they would have succeeded in bringing the war to a favorable close, by forcing the English general Cornwallis to capitulate at Yorktown (1781), had it not been for the aid of the French fleet. The chief result of the war was the recognition by England of the independence of the United States, whose territory was to extend to the Mississippi River. To the west of the Mississippi the vast territory of Louisiana still remained in the hands of Spain, as well as Florida, which England had held since 1763 but now gave back.

Spain and Portugal were able to hold their American possessions a generation longer than the English, but in the end practically all the Western Hemisphere, with the exception of Canada, completely freed itself from the domination of the European powers. Cuba, one of the very last vestiges of Spanish rule in the West, gained its independence with the aid of the United States in 1898.

690. Great Extension of England's Colonial Possessions. England had lost her American colonies as a result of the only important and successful revolt that has ever taken place in her

great empire. This led to the creation of a sister state speaking her own language and destined to occupy the central part of the North American continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. She still retained Canada, however, and in the nineteenth century added a new continent in the Southern Hemisphere, Australia, to her vast colonial empire. In India she had no further rivals among European nations and gradually extended her influence over the whole region south of the Himalayas.

QUESTIONS

I. Why is the study of colonial possessions important in understanding the history of Europe? Compare the extent of Europe with the colonial possessions of the European powers before the World War. What were the possessions of Spain, England, and France in North America before the Seven Years' War? What were the English possessions at the close of the war?

II. Tell something of the extent and population of India. Describe the government in India at the opening of the eighteenth century. What settlements did the English and French have at this time? How did England make her influence supreme in India?

III. Review the struggle of the English and French for possessions in America. What was the condition of the English settlers in America at the close of the Seven Years' War? Describe England's navigation and trade laws. How did the colonists evade these restrictions? Why did England introduce a stricter policy after 1763? Why were the taxes so unpopular in the colonies? What was the attitude of Parliament toward the colonies? Review the events which led to the separation of the colonies from England. What was the importance of the aid given by France?

CHAPTER XXXII

GENERAL CONDITIONS IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

I. Life of the People in Country and Town

691. Survivals of the Manorial System. If a peasant who had lived on a manor in the time of the Crusades had been able to return to earth and travel about Europe at the opening of the eighteenth century, he would have found much to remind him of the conditions under which, seven centuries earlier, he had extracted a scanty living from the soil. Although the gradual disappearance of serfdom in western Europe seems to have begun as early as the twelfth century, it proceeded at very different rates in different countries. In France the old type of serf had largely disappeared by the fourteenth century, and more completely in England a hundred years later.

Even in France there were, however, still many annoying traces of the old system. The peasant was, it is true, no longer bound to a particular manor; he could buy or sell his land at will, could marry without consulting the lord, and could go and come as he pleased. But the lord might still require all those on his manor to grind their grain at his mill, bake their bread in his oven, and press their grapes in his wine press. The peasant might have to pay a toll to cross a bridge or ferry which was under the lord's control, or give a certain sum for driving his flock past the lord's mansion. He might also have to turn over to his lord a certain portion of his crops.

692. Condition of the Serfs in a Large Part of Europe. In Prussia, Russia, Austria, Hungary, Italy, and Spain the medieval system still prevailed (§ 406); the peasant lived and died upon the same manor, and worked for his lord in the same way that his ancestors had worked a thousand years before. Everywhere the

A Street Scene in Cannes in Southern France, showing the Narrow Streets originating in the Middle Ages

same crude farm implements were still used and were roughly made in the neighboring village. The wooden plows were constructed on the model of the old Roman plow; wheat was cut with a sickle, grass with an unwieldy scythe, and the rickety cart wheels did not have iron tires but only wooden rims.

693. Wretched Houses of the Peasants. The houses occupied by the country people differed greatly from Sicily to Pomerania, and from Ireland to Poland; but, in general, they were small, with little light or ventilation, and often they were nothing but wretched hovels with dirt floors and neglected thatch roofs. The pigs and the cows were frequently as well housed as the people, with whom they associated upon very familiar terms, since the barn and the house were commonly in the same building. The drinking-water was bad, and there was no attempt to secure proper drainage. Fortunately everyone was out of doors a great deal of the time, for the women as well as the men usually worked in the fields, cultivating the soil and helping to gather in the crops.

Country life in the eighteenth century was obviously very unattractive for the most part. The peasant had no newspapers to tell him of the world outside his manor, nor could he have read them if he had had them. Even in England not one peasant in five thousand could read at all.

694. Towns still Medieval in the Eighteenth Century. In the towns also there was much to remind one of the Middle Ages (§§ 409 ff.). The narrow, crooked streets, darkened by the overhanging buildings and scarcely lighted at all by night, the rough cobblestones, the disgusting odors even in the best quarters,—all offered a marked contrast to the European cities of today, which have grown tremendously in the last hundred years in size, beauty, and comfort.

695. London. In 1760 London had half a million inhabitants, or about a tenth of its present population. There were of course no street cars or omnibuses, to say nothing of the thousands of automobiles which now thread their way in and out through the press of traffic. A few hundred hackney coaches and sedan chairs served to carry those who had not private conveyances and could

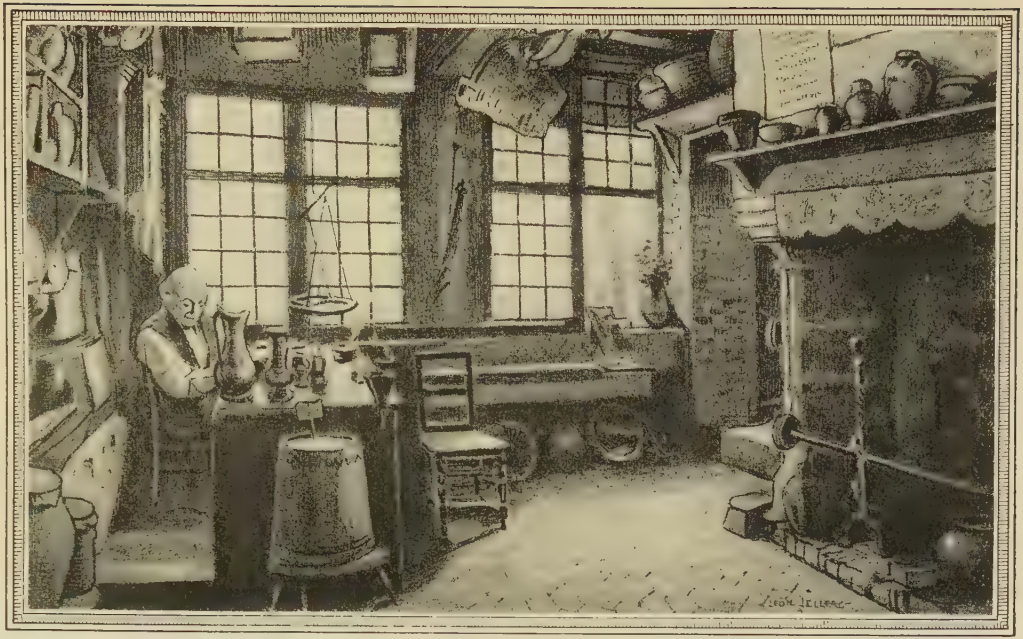
not, or would not, walk. The ill-lighted streets were guarded at night by watchmen who went about with lanterns, but who afforded so little protection against the roughs and robbers that gentlemen were compelled to carry arms when passing through the streets after nightfall.

696. Paris. Paris was somewhat larger than London and had outgrown its medieval walls. The police were more efficient there, and the highway robberies which disgraced London and its suburbs were almost unknown. The great park, the "Elysian Fields," and many of the boulevards which now form so distinguished a feature of Paris were already laid out; but, in general, the streets were still narrow, and there were none of the fine broad avenues which now radiate from a hundred centers. There were few sewers to carry off the water which, when it rained, flowed through the middle of the streets. The filth and the bad smells of former times still remained, and the people had to rely upon easily polluted wells or the dirty River Seine for their water supply.

697. German Towns. In Germany very few of the towns had spread beyond their medieval walls. They had, for the most part, lost their former prosperity, which was still recalled by the fine old houses of the merchants and of the once flourishing guilds (§ 413). Berlin had a population of only about two hundred thousand. Vienna, the finest city in Austria, was slightly larger. This city then employed from thirty to a hundred street cleaners, and boasted that the street lamps were lighted every night.

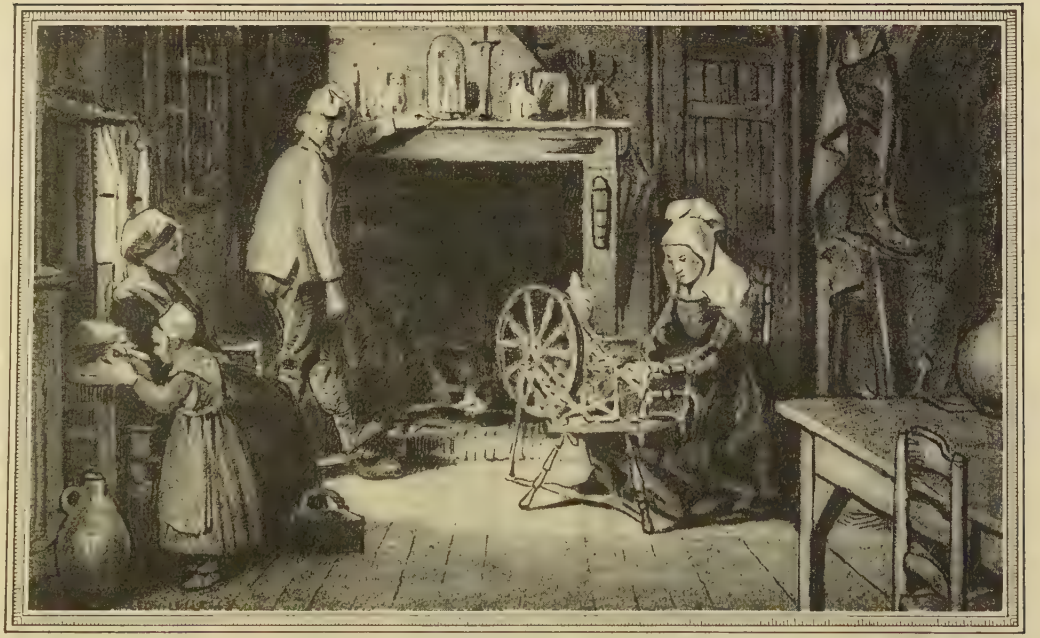
698. Italian Cities. Even the famous cities of Italy,—Milan, Genoa, Florence, Rome (§§ 485 ff.),—notwithstanding their beautiful palaces and public buildings, were, with the exception of water-bound Venice, crowded into the limited compass of the town wall, and their streets were narrow and crooked.

699. Trade and Industry on a Small Scale. Another contrast between the towns of the eighteenth century and those of today lay in the absence of the great wholesale warehouses, the vast factories with their tall chimneys, and the attractive department stores which may now be found in every city from Dublin to



A Merchant in his Shop in the Old Régime

Most of the shops of the eighteenth century were merely rooms of private houses fitted up for business. The merchant has hung his goods from the ceiling and arranged them on shelves over the doorway



INTERIOR OF A HOUSE IN THE OLD RÉGIME

This is a room in the house of a well-to-do Norman sailor, as shown in the municipal museum of Honfleur. The flax wheel, it will be noticed, was kept busy beside the open fire

Budapest. There were as yet no steamships, railroads, or even factories supplied with machinery, so business was conducted upon a small scale, except at the great ports like London, Antwerp, or Amsterdam, where goods coming and going to the colonies in sailing vessels were brought together in great warehouses.

700. Survival of Medieval Guilds. The medieval guilds still controlled the making and selling of goods. A great part of the manufacturing still took place in little shops where the articles were offered for sale. Generally all those who owned the several shops carrying on a particular trade, such as tailoring, shoemaking, baking, tanning, bookbinding, hair cutting, or the making of candles, knives, hats, artificial flowers, swords, or wigs, were organized into a guild, the main object of which was to prevent all other citizens from making or selling the articles in which the members of the guild dealt (§ 413). The guilds were confined, however, to the old established industries, and their seeming strength was really giving way before the entirely new conditions which had arisen.

II. The Privileged Classes: Nobility and Clergy

701. Privileges of the Nobility. Not only had the medieval manor and the medieval guilds maintained themselves down into the eighteenth century, but the successors of the feudal lords continued to exist as a showy and powerful class. They enjoyed various privileges and distinctions denied to the ordinary citizen, although they were, of course, shorn of the great power that the more important dukes and counts had formerly enjoyed. In the Middle Ages they ruled over vast tracts, could summon their vassals to assist them in their constant wars with their neighbors, and dared defy even the authority of the king himself (§§ 341 ff.).

702. Feudal Nobles brought under Royal Control. The English, French, and Spanish kings had gradually subjugated the turbulent barons and brought the great fiefs directly under royal control. The monarchs met with such success that in the eighteenth century the nobles no longer held aloof but eagerly sought

the king's court as we have seen. Those whose predecessors had once been veritable sovereigns within their own domains had deserted their war horses and laid aside their long swords; in their velvet coats and high-heeled shoes they were contented with the privilege of helping the king to dress in the morning and attending him at dinner. The battlemented castle, once the stronghold of independent chieftains, was transformed into a tasteful country residence where if the king honored the owner with a visit the host was no longer tempted, as his ancestors had been, to shower arrows and stones upon the royal intruder.

By their prolonged absence from their estates the nobles in France lost the confidence of their tenants, while their stewards roused the hatred of the peasants by strictly collecting all the ancient manorial dues in order that the lord might enjoy the gayeties at court.

703. The English Peerage. In England the feudal castles had disappeared earlier than in France, and the English law did not grant to anyone, however long and distinguished his lineage, special rights or exemptions not enjoyed by every freeman. Nevertheless there was a distinct noble class in England. The monarch had been accustomed to summon his earls and some of his barons to take council with him, and in this way the *peerage* developed; this included those whose title permitted them to sit in the House of Lords and to transmit this honorable privilege to their eldest sons. But the peers paid the same taxes as every other subject and were punished in the same manner if they were convicted of an offense. Moreover, only the *eldest* living son of a noble father inherited his rank, while on the Continent *all* the children became nobles. In this way the number of the English nobility was greatly restricted.

704. The German Nobles. In Germany, however, the nobles continued to occupy very much the same position which their ancestors held in the Middle Ages. There had been no king to do for Germany what the French kings had done for France; no mighty man had risen strong enough to batter down castle walls and bend all barons, great and small, to his will. The

result was that there were in Germany in the eighteenth century hundreds of nobles dwelling in strong old castles and ruling with a high hand domains which were sometimes no larger than a big American farm. They levied taxes, held courts, coined money, and maintained standing armies of perhaps only a handful of soldiers.

705. The King the Chief Noble. In all the countries of Europe the chief noble was, of course, the monarch himself, to whose favor almost all the lesser nobles owed their titles and rank. On the whole, the king merited the respect paid him. He had put a stop to the private warfare and feudal brigandage which had disgraced the Middle Ages. He it was who had destroyed the power of innumerable lesser despots and created something like a nation.

706. The Clergy a Privileged Class. In addition to the nobles, the clergy, especially in Catholic countries, formed a privileged class, which was even more powerful and better organized than the nobility. They still enjoyed many rights and immunities which set them off from the people at large. We have seen how the government during the Middle Ages depended on the clergy to write out its documents and decrees, for they alone were educated, and how the higher clergy came to play a prominent part in the affairs of state and to act as counselors to the king. Moreover, they controlled the vast wealth of the Church, which had gradually accumulated through gifts of money and lands. The archbishops, bishops, and abbots were in the eighteenth century fond of living at the king's court, supported in luxury by the income from their great estates, and had in many cases the rights of feudal lords. On the other hand, many of the poor parish priests could hardly subsist on their meager and uncertain incomes. The Church, however, did not rely for its support entirely upon the revenue from its extensive domains, but imposed a regular tax on everyone—the *tithe*, which all were forced to pay whether they wished to or not.

707. Powers of the Church in the Eighteenth Century. In spite of the changes which had overtaken it, the Church remained in the eighteenth century a powerful and impressive institution.

It retained its gorgeous ceremonial, its hierarchy, its enormous possessions, and its control over the minds of men. By performing many useful services it seemed as indispensable to the average citizen as it had before the development of great national states. It registered his birth, took care of his education, sanctified his marriage, gave him relief in time of sickness or distress, and provided eternal salvation for his soul. In return, however, it claimed the right to collect its income and to demand loyalty to its teachings. It fined and imprisoned those who dared to oppose its dogmas and could by *excommunication* punish those who defied its authority.

708. Intolerance of Both Catholics and Protestants. Both the Protestant and Catholic churches were intolerant and were usually supported by the government, which was ready to punish anyone who refused to conform to the religion adopted by the State or who ventured to speak or write against its doctrines.

709. Censorship of the Press. Books and pamphlets were carefully examined by a censor in order to see whether they in any way attempted to undermine the authority of the Church or of the king. As late as 1757 the king of France issued a declaration establishing the death penalty for those who wrote, printed, or distributed any work which appeared to be an attack on religion. A considerable number of the books issued in France in the eighteenth century which criticized the government or the Church were condemned by either the clergy or the king's courts and were burned by the common hangman or suppressed. Not infrequently the authors, if they could be discovered, were imprisoned.

Nevertheless, books attacking the old ideas and suggesting reforms in Church and State constantly appeared and were freely circulated. The writers took care not to place their names or those of the publishers upon the title-pages, and many such books were printed at Geneva or in Holland, where great freedom prevailed. In Spain the censorship of the press and the Inquisition constituted a double bulwark against change until the latter half of the eighteenth century.

710. The English Established Church and the Protestant Sects. It will be remembered that Henry VIII had thrown off his allegiance to the Pope and declared himself the head of the English Church. Under Queen Elizabeth a national Church had been established by Parliament. Those who loyally adhered to the Roman Catholic faith fared badly, although happily there were no such general massacres as overwhelmed the Protestants in France. There were many Protestants who did not approve of the Anglican Church as established by law. During the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries these Dissenters developed gradually into several sects, with different views. In addition to those of which we have already spoken (§ 616) was the Society of Friends, or Quakers. They owed their origin to George Fox, who began his preaching in 1647. The Friends were distinguished by their simplicity of life and dress and their plain meeting-houses with scarcely a trace of the old forms of religious worship. The Quakers were the first religious sect to denounce war ever and always, and they should have the credit of beginning a movement against war which had gained much headway before the outbreak in 1914.

The last of the great Protestant sects to appear was that of the Methodists. Their founder, John Wesley (d. 1791), when at Oxford, established a religious society among his fellow students. Their piety and the regularity of their habits gained for them the nickname of "Methodists."

711. Legal Intolerance in England. The Toleration Act, which was passed in 1689, permitted Dissenters to hold meetings; but "Papists and such as deny the Trinity" (namely, Unitarians) were explicitly excluded. The Dissenters as well as Catholics were not permitted to hold government offices and could not obtain degrees at the universities. Only the members of the Anglican Church could secure a church benefice. Roman Catholics were forbidden to enter England and legally had no rights whatever within the realm.

712. Freedom of Speech and of the Press in England. Nevertheless, in spite of the ancient intolerant laws and the special

privileges of the Anglican Church, men were very free in the eighteenth century in England to believe and to say what they wished. One desiring to publish a book or pamphlet did not have to obtain the permission of the government, as was required in France. The result was that there was a vast amount of discussion of religious, scientific, and political matters beyond anything that went on in any other European country. The books of the English reformers had a great influence upon the French, as will become apparent in the following section.

III. Modern Science introduces the Idea of Progress

713. Idea of the "Good Old Times." Before the eighteenth century men in general showed a great respect and veneration for the past. They believed that former times had been better than the present, because the evils of the past were little known, while the existing ones were only too apparent. They therefore always aspired to be as saintly, to write as good books, or to paint as beautiful pictures as the great men of old. That they might hope to excel their predecessors did not occur to them. Their ideals centered in the past, and improvement seemed to them to consist in reviving the "good old days."

714. New Idea of Progress. Thoughtful people, however, began to be aware of the deficiencies and mistakes of the past and to dream of betterment and progress beyond the happiest times of which they had any record. They came to feel that the ignorance and prejudices of their forefathers, and the bad laws and institutions which they had handed down to them, were the chief obstacles to reform. If only they could be free of these burdens they might create an environment which would be more suitable to their needs.

715. Influence of Scientific Discoveries. It was mainly to the patient men of science that the Western world owed its hope of future improvement. They have gradually robbed the past of its binding authority and by their discoveries pointed the way to

indefinite advance. We can hardly realize how great a change has come over man's outlook on the world in recent times, for today we *expect* constant new discoveries and improvements and accept without astonishment such marvelous inventions as the telephone, the wireless telegraph, and the aëroplane.

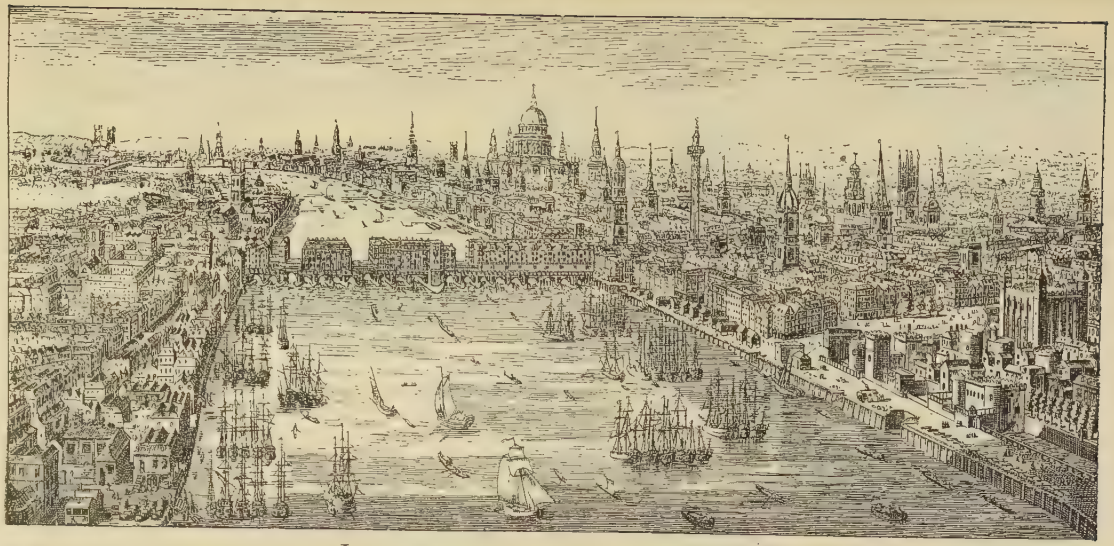
716. Modern Experimental Science. In the Middle Ages learned men had been but little interested in the world about them and had devoted their attention to philosophy and theology. They were content to get their knowledge of nature from reading the works of the ancients—mainly Aristotle. The new scientists, however, were not satisfied with the mere observation of what they saw about them, or the account which some ancient writer had given; they began to perform *experiments*—that is, they placed materials in new combinations and carefully observed what took place. They established laboratories, especially equipped, where they could use apparatus which was designed to help them in their studies. Microscopes, telescopes, barometers, thermometers, clocks, and balances now assisted them in making accurate measurements which were impossible for the Greeks and Romans, who had none of these instruments to aid them. This new method of study led to the most astonishing discoveries, which have revolutionized the world in which we live. Our modern machinery, locomotives, steamships, telephones, cameras, and phonographs are but a few of the marvelous results of scientific experiment which had its beginnings in the eighteenth century.

717. Opposition to Scientific Discoveries. Those who accepted the old views of the world and religion were quite justified in suspecting that the new discoveries would make them trouble. For scientific investigation taught men to distrust the past, which furnished so many instances of ignorance and superstition. Moreover, some of its teachings did not seem to harmonize with the Bible and the prevailing notions of the universe. Unlike the theologians, the newer thinkers maintained that man was not utterly vile or incapable of good thoughts and deeds except through divine grace. They urged him, on the contrary, to use his own reason freely and believed that he might indefinitely better

his own condition and that of his fellows could he only succeed in ridding himself of the accumulation of ancient error and tradition.

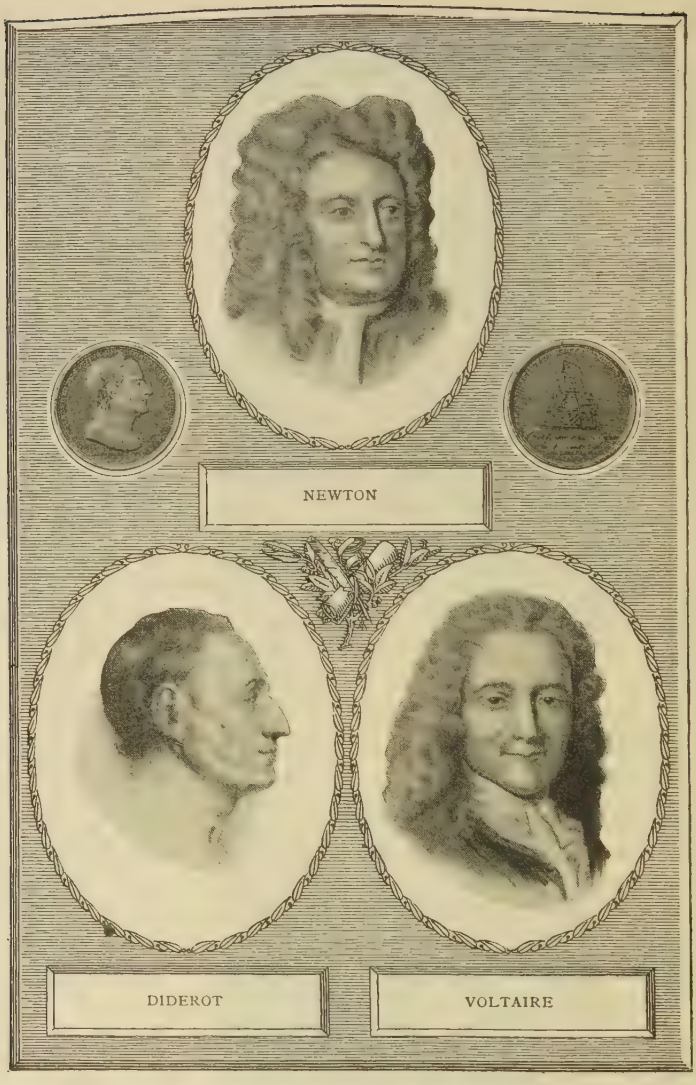
718. Views of Voltaire (1694–1788). In the year 1726 there landed in England a young and gifted Frenchman who was to become the great prophet of this view. Voltaire, who was then thirty-two years of age, had already deserted the older religious beliefs and was ready to follow enthusiastically the more progressive English thinkers, who discussed matters with an openness that filled him with astonishment. He greatly admired the teachings of Newton and regarded his discovery of universal gravitation as greater than any of the achievements of Alexander or Cæsar. He had no use for warriors; he says, "It is to him who understands the universe, not to those who disfigure it, we owe our reverence." Voltaire was also deeply impressed by the Quakers—their simple life and their hatred of war. He was pleased by the English liberty of speech and writing, and he respected the general esteem for the business class. His little volume *Letters on the English*, in which he records the impressions which England made on him when he visited it, was condemned to be publicly burned by the high court of justice at Paris as scandalous and lacking in the respect then considered due to kings and governments.

719. Influence of Voltaire. Voltaire remained, however, during the rest of his long life the chief advocate in Europe of reliance upon reason and confidence in progress. The vast range of his writings enabled him to bring his views before all sorts and conditions of men. He wrote histories, plays, dramas, philosophic treatises, romances, and innumerable letters to his many admirers. The name of Voltaire has become associated with his relentless attack upon the Roman Catholic Church, which appeared to him opposed to the exercise of reason and hostile to reform. It was because he believed that the Church stood in the way of progress that he seemed incapable of realizing all that it had done for mankind during the bygone ages. He, however, fought against wrong and oppression and did much to prepare the way for great and permanent reforms.



LONDON IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

London was almost destroyed by a great fire in 1666. The old city had been a picturesque mass of timbered houses; the new one was built of brick and stone. In the center rose the new St. Paul's Cathedral, whose dome, 370 feet high, is still higher than any other building in the city. Its architect, Sir Christopher Wren, also built most of the churches whose spires are visible here, the eighteenth-century artist having drawn them, indeed, somewhat out of proportion in order to attract attention to them. The column with a gallery around it is "The Monument," erected to commemorate the great fire. At the lower right-hand side is the Tower. Note the houses on London Bridge. The two towers farthest up the river are those of Westminster Abbey, and the roof of the old Parliament buildings can be just made out below them, beside the bridge



Leaders of the Revolution in Thought

720. Diderot's *Encyclopedia*. Voltaire had many admirers and powerful allies. Among these none were more important than Denis Diderot and the scholars whom Diderot induced to coöperate with him in preparing articles for a new *Encyclopedia*, which was designed to spread among a wide range of intelligent readers a knowledge of scientific advance and rouse enthusiasm for reform and progress. Diderot and his fellow editors endeavored to rouse as little opposition as possible. They respected current prejudices and gave space to ideas and opinions with which they were not always personally in sympathy.

The *Encyclopedia* attacked temperately, but effectively, religious intolerance, the bad taxes, the slave trade, and the atrocities of the criminal law; it encouraged men to turn their minds to natural science with all its possibilities. The article "Legislator," written by Diderot, might have been written today: "All the men of all lands have become necessary to one another for the exchange of the fruits of industry and the products of the soil. Commerce is a new bond among men. In these days every nation has an interest in the preservation by every other nation of its wealth, its industry, its banks, its luxury, its agriculture. The ruin of Leipzig, of Lisbon, of Lima, has led to bankruptcies on all the exchanges of Europe and has affected the fortunes of many millions of persons."

In spite of its wisdom and moderation, however, it aroused the opposition of the theologians, and after the first two volumes appeared, in 1752, the king's ministers, to please the officials of the Church, suppressed them, as containing principles hostile to royal authority and religion, although they did not succeed in preventing the completion of the work.

721. Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778). Next to Voltaire, the writer who did most to cultivate discontent with existing conditions was Jean Jacques Rousseau. Rousseau believed in the natural equality of mankind and the right of every man to have a voice in the government. In his celebrated little treatise *The Social Contract* he declares that it is *the will of the people* that renders government legitimate. The real sovereign is the people.

Although they may appoint a single person, such as a king, to manage the government for them, they should make the laws, since it is they who must obey them. We shall find that the first French constitution accepted Rousseau's doctrine and defined law as "the expression of the general will"—not the will of a king reigning by the grace of God. Rousseau also urged men to return to nature and to a life of simplicity; for he held that the development of the arts and sciences had demoralized mankind, since they had produced luxury, insincerity, and arrogance.

CATHERINE II

722. The Benevolent Despots. Some of the rulers of the time, especially Frederick the Great of Prussia, Catherine the Great of Russia, and Maria Theresa's son, Emperor Joseph II, read the books of the French reformers and corresponded with them. These monarchs are known as the "benevolent despots"; for while they were careful to keep the government in their own hands, they introduced various reforms which they claimed would be advantageous to their subjects.

Frederick read French books and wrote in French; he invited Voltaire to spend some time at his palace near Berlin and kept up a correspondence with him later. Catherine too worked hard in governing her realms and explained her reforms in letters to Voltaire. She also helped and encouraged Diderot. She talked of abolishing serfdom, but really made the serfs' lot worse. She confiscated the property of churches and monasteries, using part of the revenue to support the clergy and part for schools and hospitals.

Joseph II, who succeeded Maria Theresa in 1780 as ruler of the Austrian realms, was the only one of the benevolent despots who undertook sweeping reforms. He tried to make the scattered and heterogeneous possessions of the Hapsburgs into a consolidated, well-organized, modern state; he freed the serfs and deprived the nobles of their privileges. He seized the Church property and appointed the bishops himself. In spite of his good intentions he met opposition on all hands, and after his death, in 1790, few of his reforms left any permanent results.

IV. The English Limited Monarchy and George III

723. Limited Monarchy of England. In striking contrast to the absolute rule of the "benevolent despots" on the Continent, the island of Britain was, as we have seen, governed by its Parliament. There the king, from the Revolution of 1688 on, had owed his crown to Parliament and admitted that he was limited by the constitution, which he had to obey. This did not prevent at least one English king from trying to have his own way in spite of the restrictions placed upon him, as we shall presently see.

724. Whigs and Tories. There were two great political parties in England: the Whigs, successors of the Roundheads, who advocated the supremacy of Parliament and championed toleration for the Dissenters; and the Tories, who, like the earlier Cavaliers (§ 606), upheld the divine right of kings and the supremacy of the Anglican, or Established, Church. After the death of Anne many of the Tories favored calling to the throne the son of James II (popularly called "the Old Pretender"), whereupon the Whigs succeeded in discrediting their rivals by denouncing them as traitors. They made the new Hanoverian king, George I, believe that he owed everything to the Whigs, and for a period of nearly fifty years, under George I and George II, they were able to control Parliament.

725. Robert Walpole, Prime Minister (1721–1742). George I himself spoke no English, was ignorant of English politics, and was much more interested in Hanover than in his new kingdom.

He did not attend the meetings of his ministers, as his predecessors had done, and turned over the management of affairs to the Whig leaders. They found a skillful "boss" and a judicious

A Noble Family of the Old Régime

Extravagance in dress, of which the men were as guilty as the women, was largely due to the influence of court life

statesman in Sir Robert Walpole, who maintained his own power and that of his party by avoiding war and preventing religious dissensions at home. He used the king's funds to buy the votes necessary to maintain the Whig majority in the House of Commons and to get his measures through that body.

726. Development of the Cabinet and the Office of Prime Minister. Walpole was England's first prime minister. The existence of two well-defined political parties standing for widely different policies forced the king to choose all his ministers from either one or the other. The more prominent among his advisers came gradually to form a little group who resigned together if Parliament refused to accept the measures they advocated. In this way the "cabinet government," begun under William III, developed, with a prime minister, or premier, at its head. Under weak monarchs the prime minister would naturally be the real ruler of the kingdom.

727. George III and Parliament. Finally, George III, who came to the throne in 1760, succeeded in creating a party of his own, known as the "King's Friends," and with their aid, and a liberal use of what would now be regarded as bribery and graft, ran the government much as he wanted to. His mother, a German princess, had taught him that he ought to be a king like those on the Continent; and, in spite of the restrictions of Parliament, he did rule in a high-handed and headstrong way. During the war with the American colonies, which soon broke out, he was practically his own prime minister.

728. Growing Demand for Reform. The really weak spot in the English constitution, however, was less the occasional high-handedness of the king than the fact that Parliament did not represent the nation as a whole. Already in the eighteenth century there was no little discontent with the monopoly which the landed gentry and the rich enjoyed in Parliament. There was an increasing number of writers to point out to the people the defects in the English system. They urged that every man should have the right to participate in the government by casting his vote, and that the unwritten constitution of England should be written down and so made clear and unmistakable. Political clubs were founded, which entered into correspondence with political societies in France; newspapers and pamphlets poured from the press in enormous quantities; and political reform found champions in the House of Commons.

729. The French Revolution checks Reform in England. This demand for reform finally induced the younger Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, who was prime minister from 1783 to 1801, to introduce bills into the House of Commons for remedying some of the old evils. But the violence and disorder accompanying the French Revolution, which began in 1789, involved England in a long and tedious war and discredited reform with Englishmen who had formerly favored change, to say nothing of the Tories, who regarded with horror any proposal looking toward an extension of the right to vote. We must now turn to the conditions in France which led to the French Revolution.

QUESTIONS

I. What survivals of the manorial system were to be found in Europe in the eighteenth century? What was the condition of the serfs? Describe the medieval towns. Compare town life in the eighteenth century in London and Paris with what you know of it today. How was trade and industry carried on?

II. How did the European nobility originate? How did their mode of living in the eighteenth century differ from what it had been in the Middle Ages? Compare the French nobility with the English peerage. What do we owe to the development of kingship? How did the clergy come to be a privileged class? What was the position of the Church in Catholic countries? What was the censorship of the press? Does it exist today? What Protestant sects had grown up in England?

III. Contrast the medieval attitude toward the past with that of thoughtful people in the eighteenth century. To what was the change of attitude largely due? What is meant by experimental science? What new instruments were used which assisted in making discoveries? Why was there opposition to the discovery of new truths? Tell what you know of Voltaire. What did the *Encyclopedia* attempt to do? Why was it suppressed? Why did Rousseau think that civilization was a bad thing? What was the policy of the "benevolent despots"? Why is not this kind of government a promising one?

IV. What is meant by the "limited monarchy" in England? Describe the origin of the two great political parties in England. How did the office of "prime minister" develop? Who is at present prime minister of England? Describe the reasons for a demand for reform under George III.

BOOK VIII. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE EVE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

I. The Old Régime in France

730. The French Revolution not the Reign of Terror. It was France that first carried out the great reforms that did away with many of the old institutions and much of the confusion that had come down from the Middle Ages. Even in England little was done in the eighteenth century to remedy the great evils of which the reformers complained. But in 1789 the king of France asked his people to submit their grievances to him and to send representatives to Versailles to confer with him upon the ways in which the government might be improved so as to increase the general happiness and the prosperity of the kingdom. The French National Assembly swept away the old institutions and accomplished more in a few months than the reforming kings had done in a century.

However, when one meets the words "French Revolution," he is pretty sure to call up before his mind's eye the guillotine and its hundreds of victims, and the Paris mob shouting the hymn of the *Marseillaise* as they paraded the streets with the heads of unfortunate "aristocrats" on their pikes. Everyone has heard of this terrible episode in French history even if he knows nothing of the permanent good which was accomplished at the time. Indeed, it has made so deep an impression that the Reign of Terror is often mistaken for the real Revolution. It was, however, only a sequel to it, an unhappy accident, which will seem

less and less important as the years go on. The Reign of Terror will be described in good time, but it is a matter of far greater importance to understand clearly how the permanent reforms were wrought out and how France won the proud distinction of being the first nation to do away with the absurd and vexatious institutions which continued to weigh upon Europe in the eighteenth century.

731. The "Old Régime." We have already examined these institutions which were common to most of the European countries,—despotic kings, arbitrary imprisonment, unfair taxation, censorship of the press, serfdom, feudal dues, friction between Church and State,—all of which the reformers had been busy denouncing as contrary to reason and humanity, and some of which the benevolent despots had, in a half-hearted way, attempted to remedy. The various relics of bygone times and of outlived conditions which the Revolution abolished forever are commonly called in France the "old régime."[1] We shall now try to see how almost everyone, from the king to the peasant, came to realize that the "old régime" was bad and consequently resolved to do away with it and substitute a more rational plan of government for the long-standing disorder.

732. France not a Unified State. Of the evils which the Revolution abolished, none was more important than the confusion in France due to the fact that it was not in the eighteenth century a well-organized, homogeneous state whose citizens all enjoyed the same rights and privileges. A long line of kings had patched it together, adding bit by bit as they could. By conquest and bargain, by marrying heiresses, and through the extinction of the feudal dynasties the original restricted domains of the early French kings about Paris had been gradually increased by their descendants. We have seen how Louis XIV gained Alsace and Strassburg. Louis XV added Lorraine in 1766. So when Louis XVI came to the throne in 1774 he found himself ruler of practically the whole territory which makes up France today. But these different parts had different institutions.

[1] From the French *ancien régime*, the old or former system.

Some of the districts which the kings of France brought under their sway were previously considerable states in themselves, each with its own laws, customs, and system of government. When these provinces had come, at different times, into the possession of the king of France, he had not changed their laws so as to make them correspond with those of his other domains. He was satisfied if a new province paid its due share of the taxes and treated his officials with respect.

While in a considerable portion of southern France the Roman law still prevailed, in the central parts and in the west and north there were no less than two hundred and eighty-five different local codes of law in force; so that one who moved from his own to a neighboring town might find a wholly unfamiliar legal system.

One of the heaviest taxes was that on salt. This varied greatly, so greatly in different parts of France that the government had to go to great expense to guard the boundary lines between the various districts, for there was every inducement to smugglers to carry salt from those parts of the country where it was cheap into the regions where it sold for a high price on account of the tax.

733. The Privileged Classes. Besides these unfortunate local differences, there were class differences which caused great discontent. All Frenchmen did not enjoy the same rights as citizens. Two small but very important classes, the nobility and the clergy, were treated differently by the State from the rest of the people. They did not have to pay one of the heaviest of the taxes, the notorious *taille*; and on one ground or another they escaped other burdens which the rest of the citizens bore.

734. The Church. We have seen how great and powerful the medieval Church still was (see above, §§ 706 ff.). In France, as in other Catholic countries of Europe, it took charge of education and of the relief of the sick and the poor. It was very wealthy and is supposed to have owned one fifth of all the land in France. The clergy claimed that their property, being dedicated to God, was not subject as other land was to taxation. They consented, however, to help the king from time to time by a "free gift," as

they called it. The Church still continued to collect the tithes from the people, and its vast possessions made it very independent.

A great part of the enormous income of the Church went to the higher clergy—the bishops, archbishops, and abbots. Since these were appointed by the king, often from among his courtiers, they tended to neglect their duties as officers of the Church and to become little more than "great lords with a hundred thousand francs income." But while they were spending their time at Versailles the real work was performed—and well performed—by the lower clergy, who often received scarcely enough to keep soul and body together. This explains why, when the Revolution began, the parish priests sided with the people instead of with their ecclesiastical superiors.

735. The Privileges of the Nobility. The privileges of the nobles, like those of the clergy, had originated in the medieval conditions described in an earlier chapter (§§ 701 ff.). While serfdom had largely disappeared in France long before the eighteenth century, and the peasants were generally free men who owned or rented their land, the lords still enjoyed, as we have seen, the right to collect a variety of time-honored dues from the inhabitants living within the limits of the former manors (§§ 405 ff.).

The nobles, too, had the exclusive privilege of hunting, which was deemed an aristocratic pastime. The game which they preserved for their amusement often did great damage to the crops of the peasants, who were forbidden to interfere with hares and deer. Many of the manors had great pigeon houses, built in the form of a tower, in which there were one or two thousand nests. No wonder the peasants detested these, for they were not permitted to protect themselves against the innumerable pigeons and their progeny, which spread over the fields devouring newly sown seed.

The higher offices in the army were reserved for the nobles, as well as the easiest and most lucrative places in the Church and in the king's palace.

736. The Third Estate. Everybody who did not belong to either the clergy or the nobility was regarded as being of the *Third Estate*. The Third Estate was therefore really the nation

at large, which was made up in 1789 of about twenty-five million souls. The privileged classes can scarcely have counted altogether more than two hundred or two hundred and fifty thousand individuals. A great part of the Third Estate lived in the country and tilled the soil. Most historians have been inclined to make out their condition as very wretched. They were certainly oppressed

A Château and Pigeon House

The round tower at the right hand in front is the pigeon house. The wall inside is honeycombed with nests, and the pigeons fly in and out at the side of the roof

by an abominable system of taxation and were irritated by the dues which they had to pay to the lords. They also suffered frequently from local famines. Yet there is no doubt that the evils of their situation have been greatly exaggerated, for it has commonly been thought that the Revolution was to be explained by the misery and despair of the people, who could bear their burdens no longer.

737. Relatively Favorable Position of French Peasants. If, however, instead of comparing the situation of the French peasant under the old régime with that of an English or American farmer today, we should contrast his position with that of his fellow

peasant in Prussia, Russia, Austria, Italy, or Spain in the eighteenth century (see §§ 691 ff.), it would be clear that in France the agricultural classes were really much better off than elsewhere on the Continent. Moreover, the fact that the population of France had steadily increased from seventeen millions after the close of the wars of Louis XIV to about twenty-five millions at the opening of the Revolution indicates that the general condition of the people was improving rather than growing worse.

The real reason why France was the first among the European countries to do away with the irritating survivals of feudalism was not that the nation was miserable and oppressed above all others, but that it was sufficiently free and enlightened to realize the evils and absurdities of the old régime. The French peasant no longer looked up to his lord as his ruler and protector, but viewed him as a sort of legalized robber who demanded a share of his precious harvest, whose officers awaited the farmer at the crossing of the river to claim a toll, who would not let him sell his produce when he wished, or permit him to protect his fields from the ravages of the pigeons which his lord kept.

738. France a Despotism in the Eighteenth Century. In the eighteenth century France was still a despotism. The king still ruled "by the grace of God," as Louis XIV had done. He needed to render account to no man for his governmental acts; he was responsible to God alone. The following illustrations will make clear the dangerous extent of the king's power.

In the first place, it was he who levied each year the heaviest of the taxes, the hated *taille*, from which the privileged classes were exempted. This tax brought in about one sixth of the whole revenue of the State. The amount collected was kept secret, and no report was made to the nation of what was done with it or, for that matter, with any other part of the king's income. Indeed, no distinction was made between the king's private funds and the State treasury, whereas in England the monarch was given a stated allowance. The king of France could issue as many drafts payable to bearer as he wished; the royal officials must pay all such orders and ask no questions.

739. Arbitrary Imprisonment. But the king not only controlled his subjects' purses; he had a terrible authority over their persons as well. He could issue orders for the arrest and arbitrary imprisonment of anyone he pleased. Without trial or formality of any sort a person might be cast into a dungeon for an indefinite period, until the king happened to remember him again or was reminded of him by the poor man's friends. These notorious orders of arrest were called "sealed letters." They were not difficult to obtain for anyone who had influence with the king or his favorites, and they furnished a particularly easy and efficacious way of disposing of an enemy. These arbitrary orders lead one to appreciate the importance of the provision of Magna Carta which runs: "No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned except by the lawful judgment of his peers and in accordance with the law of the land." Some of the most eminent Frenchmen of the time were shut up by the king's order, often on account of books or pamphlets written by them which displeased the king or those about him.

740. The *Parlements* and their Protests. Yet, notwithstanding the seemingly unlimited powers of the French king, and in spite of the fact that France had no written constitution and no congress to which the nation sent representatives, the monarch was by no means absolutely free to do just as he pleased. For example, the high courts of law, the so-called *parlements*, could often hamper him and his ministers.

These resembled the English Parliament in almost nothing but name. The French *parlements*—of which the most important one was at Paris and a dozen more were scattered about the provinces—did not, however, confine themselves solely to the business of trying lawsuits. They claimed that when the king decided to make a new law he must send it to them to be registered, for how, otherwise, could they adjust their decisions to it? Although they acknowledged that the right to make the laws belonged to the monarch, they nevertheless often sent a "protest" to the king instead of registering an edict which they disapproved. They would urge that the king's ministers had misled his Majesty.

They would also take pains to have their protest printed and sold on the streets at a penny or two a copy, so that people should get the idea that the *parlements* were defending the nation against the oppressive measures of the king's ministers.

Struggles between the *parlements* and the king's ministers were very frequent in the eighteenth century. They prepared the way for the Revolution by bringing important questions to the attention of the people; for there were no newspapers, and no parliamentary or congressional debates, to enable the public to understand the policy of the government. In this way the *parlements* helped the growing discontent with a government which was carried on in secret and which left the nation at the mercy of the men who might get the king under their influence.

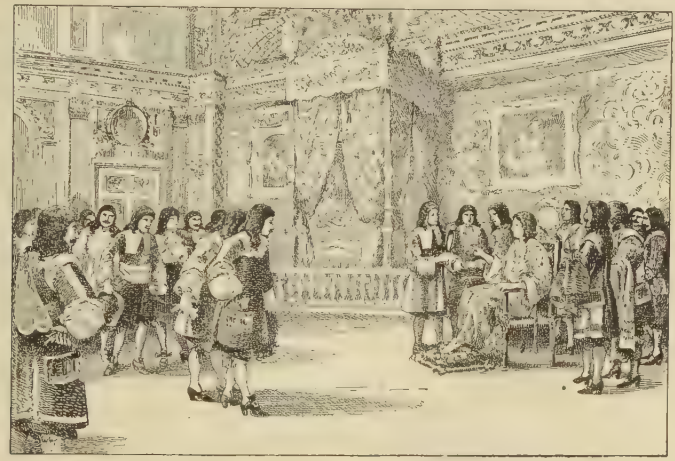
741. Attempts to encourage Discussion of Public Questions. Although there were no daily newspapers to discuss public questions, large numbers of pamphlets were written and circulated by individuals whenever there was an important crisis, and they answered much the same purpose as the editorials in a modern newspaper. We have already seen how French philosophers and reformers, like Voltaire and Diderot, had been encouraged by the freedom of speech which prevailed in England, and how industriously they had sown the seeds of discontent in their own country. We have seen how in popular works, in poems and stories and plays, and above all in the *Encyclopedia*, they explained the new scientific discoveries, attacked the old beliefs and misapprehensions, and encouraged progress.

II. How Louis XVI tried to play the Benevolent Despot

742. Accession of Louis XVI (1774). In 1774 Louis XV[1] died, after a disgraceful reign of which it has not seemed necessary to say much. His unsuccessful wars, which had ended with the loss of all his American possessions and the victory of his

[1] He came to the throne in 1715 as a boy of five, on the death of Louis XIV, his great-grandfather.

enemies in India (see § 677), had brought France down to the verge of bankruptcy. The taxes were already so heavy as to arouse universal complaint, and yet the government was running behind seventy millions of dollars a year. The king's personal conduct was scandalous, and he allowed his courtiers to meddle



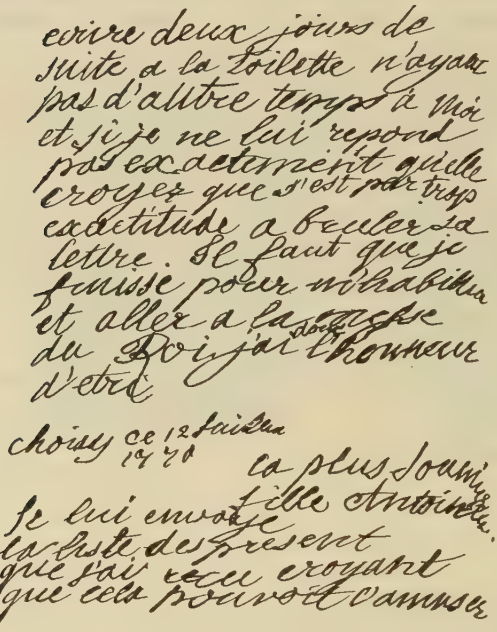
COURT SCENE AT VERSAILLES

The king is surrounded by princes of the royal family and the greatest nobles of France while he dresses and is shaved upon rising in the morning (the *levée*). Similar ceremonies were performed when the king went to bed at night (the *couchée*). The bed, hung with rich tapestries, is behind the railing. The door at the left leads into a small room—called the Bull's Eye Room (*salon de l'Œil-de-bœuf*) from the round window above the door—where the ambassadors and other dignitaries waited to be admitted, and while waiting often planned and plotted how to win the king's favor. Louis XVI's bedroom at Versailles is still preserved, in much of its old-time splendor; for the palace is now a museum

in public affairs and plunder the royal treasury for themselves and their favorites. When at last he was carried off by smallpox everyone hailed, with hopes of better times, the accession of his grandson and successor, Louis XVI.

743. Character of Louis XVI. The new king was but twenty years old, poorly educated, indolent, unsociable, and very fond of

hunting and of pottering about in a workshop, where he spent his happiest hours. He was a well-meaning young man, with none of his grandfather's vices. He tried now and then to attend to the disagreeable business of government, and would gladly have made his people happy if that had not required more energy than he possessed. He had little of the interest in public affairs that we found in Frederick the Great or Catherine II; he was never tempted to rise as they had at five o'clock in the morning in order to read State papers.



A Letter of Marie Antoinette

From a letter written July 12, 1770, to her mother, Maria Theresa. The immaturity of the handwriting, the mistakes in spelling, and general carelessness show what an undeveloped girl she was when she came to the gay court of Versailles

744. Marie Antoinette. His wife was the beautiful Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa. The marriage had been arranged in 1770 with a view of maintaining the alliance which had been concluded between France and Austria in 1756 (§ 659). The queen was only nineteen years old when she came to the throne, light-hearted and eager for pleasure. She disliked the formal etiquette of the court at Versailles and shocked people by her thoughtless pranks. She loved intrigue and did not

hesitate to interfere in the government when she wished to help one of her favorites or to make trouble for someone she disliked.

745. Turgot, Controller General (1746–1777). At first Louis XVI took his duties very seriously. He almost immediately placed the ablest of all the French economists, Turgot, in the most important of the government offices, that of controller general.

The first and most natural measure was economy, for only in that way could the government be saved from bankruptcy and the burden of taxation be lightened. Turgot felt that the vast amount spent in maintaining the luxury of the royal court at Versailles should be reduced. The establishments of the king, the queen, and the princes cost the State annually about twelve million dollars. Then the French king had long been accustomed to grant "pensions" in a reckless manner to his favorites, and this required nearly twelve million dollars more.

Any attempt, however, to reduce this amount would arouse the immediate opposition of the courtiers, and it was the courtiers who really governed France. They were constantly about the monarch from morning until night; therefore they had an obvious advantage over Turgot, who only saw him in business hours. In May, 1776, the king finally consented to dismiss Turgot, and most of his reforms were undone.

746. Necker's Financial Report. Necker, who after a brief interval succeeded Turgot, contributed to the progress of the coming revolution in two ways. He borrowed vast sums of money in order to carry on the war which France, as the ally of the United States, had undertaken against England. This greatly embarrassed the treasury later and helped to produce the financial crisis which was the immediate cause of the French Revolution. Secondly, he gave the nation its first opportunity of learning what was done with the public funds, by presenting to the king (February, 1781) a *report* on the financial condition of the kingdom; this was publicly printed and eagerly read. There the people could see for the first time how much the *taille* and the salt tax actually took from them, and how much the king spent on himself and his favorites.

747. Calonne predicts Bankruptcy (1786). Necker was soon followed by Calonne, who may be said to have precipitated the French Revolution. He was very popular at first with king and courtiers, for he spent the public funds far more recklessly than his predecessors. But, naturally, he soon found himself in a position where he could obtain no more money. At last Calonne, finding himself desperately put to it, informed the astonished king that the State was on the verge of bankruptcy, and that in order to save it a radical reformation of the whole public order was necessary. This report of Calonne's may be taken as the beginning of the French Revolution, for it was the first of the series of events that led to the calling of a representative assembly which abolished the old régime and gave France a written constitution.

QUESTIONS

I. How should the French Revolution be distinguished from the Reign of Terror? What is the meaning of "old régime"? Why was France so poorly organized in the eighteenth century? Give some examples of the differences which existed between the various provinces. Who were the privileged classes, and what were their privileges? Give examples of the feudal dues. In what respects was the French peasant more happily situated than his fellows in other parts of Europe? What were the chief powers of the French monarch? What were "sealed letters"? What did the *parlements* do to forward the coming revolution? What is meant by public opinion, and what chances does it have to express itself today that it did not have in France before the Revolution?

II. Who was Louis XVI? Tell something of his wife. Why did Turgot fail to remedy any of the abuses? What happened under Necker to forward the Revolution? Why was Calonne forced to admit that he could not carry on the government unless reforms were introduced?

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

I. Reforms of the National Assembly (1789–1791)

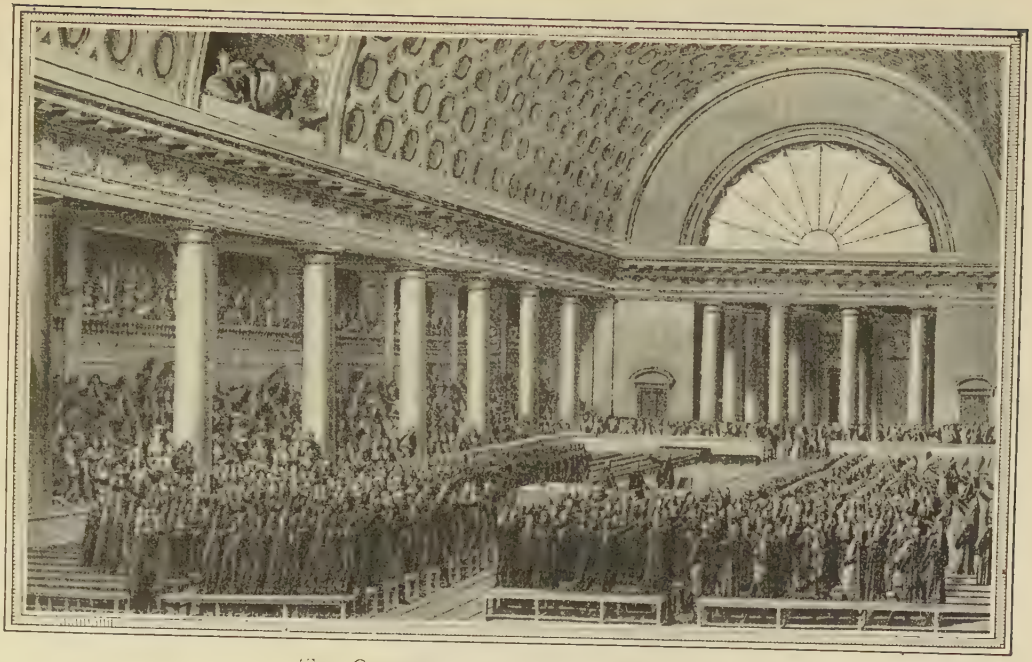
748. How the Estates General was Summoned. Calonne first induced the king to summon in 1786 an assembly of *Notables*—nobles, bishops, and government officials—and tried to persuade them to ratify a series of reforms which he hoped would put the treasury on a better basis. But they had no confidence in Calonne and no inclination to give up their privileges and exemptions. So the king dismissed Calonne and sent the Notables home. He then tried to get the *parlements* to ratify some new taxes, but they refused. The *parlement* of Paris resolved to make as much trouble as possible for the king's ministers and gain popularity for itself. So it declared, "Only the nation assembled in the Estates General can give the consent necessary to establish a permanent tax." "Only the nation," the *parlement* continued, "after it has learned the true state of the finances can destroy the existing evils and injustices." So the king finally decided to summon the Estates General in May, 1789.

749. Question of voting by Order or by Head. The Estates General had originated in the fourteenth century (§ 481) and was made up of representatives elected by the nobility, clergy, and Third Estate, each sending an equal number of delegates. These delegates were not expected to consider the needs of the nation *as a whole* but of their own particular class. So each of the three groups sat by itself, and each came to a separate agreement and cast a single vote for its class. They did not form a single body deliberating and voting individually, like a modern House of Representatives. The Estates had not met since 1614, and there was much discussion in regard to the nature and powers

of the body. But there was a general agreement that the system of voting by orders was absurd, for the two privileged orders could outvote the representatives of the nation at large, and they were likely to do so when it came to abolishing their old privileges and exemptions. The king's ministers finally agreed that the Third Estate might have twice as many representatives (namely, six hundred) as either of the other orders, but the king refused to permit the assembly to sit and vote as a single body.

750. The Cahiers. We have an extraordinary proof that France was ready for a great reform in the list of grievances and suggestions for improvement which, following an ancient custom, the king asked each town and village throughout France to prepare. These were the so-called *cahiers* (pronounced kȧ yā′). The *cahiers* agreed that the chief evil was the old disorder, the autocratic powers of the king and his ministers, and the absence of a constitution setting forth the rights of the nation and limiting the power of the monarch. No one dreamed as yet of getting rid of the king altogether and establishing a republic, as later happened, but most thoughtful people were tired of the old absolute monarchy.

751. How the Estates General became a National Assembly, June, 1789. With these ideas in mind, the deputies assembled in Versailles and held their first session on May 5, 1789. In spite of the king's commands the representatives of the Third Estate refused to organize themselves in the old way as a separate order. They sent invitation after invitation to the deputies of the clergy and nobility, requesting them to join the people's representatives and discuss together the great interests of the nation. Some of the more liberal of the nobles—Lafayette, for example—and a large minority of the clergy wished to meet with the deputies of the Third Estate. But they were outvoted, and the deputies of the Third Estate, losing patience, finally declared themselves, on June 17, a "National Assembly." They argued that, since they represented at least ninety-six per cent of the nation, the deputies of the privileged orders might be neglected altogether as a worse than useless element in the assembly. *This*



THE OPENING OF THE ESTATES GENERAL

THE TENNIS-COURT OATH

From a painting of the Revolutionary period, showing the excited crowd of deputies in the barnlike court swearing that they will not separate until they have prepared a constitution for France

transformed the old feudal Estates, voting by orders, into the first modern national representative assembly on the continent of Europe.

752. The "Tennis-Court" Oath. Under the influence of his courtiers the king tried to restore the old system by arranging a "royal" session of the three orders, at which he presided in person. He presented a long program of reforms, and then bade the Estates sit apart, according to the old custom. But it was like bidding water to run uphill. Three days before, when the members of the Third Estate had found themselves excluded from their regular place of meeting on account of the preparations for the royal session, they had betaken themselves to a neighboring building called the "Tennis Court." Here, on June 20, they took the famous "Tennis-Court" oath, "to come together wherever circumstances may dictate, until the constitution of the kingdom shall be established."

Consequently, when the king finished his address and commanded the three orders to resume their separate sessions, most of the bishops, some of the parish priests, and a great part of the nobility obeyed; the rest sat still, uncertain what they should do. When the master of ceremonies ordered them to comply with the king's commands, Mirabeau, the most distinguished statesman among the deputies, told him bluntly that they would not leave their places except at the point of the bayonet. The weak king almost immediately gave in and a few days later ordered all the deputies of the privileged orders who had not already done so to join the commons.

753. The Fall of the Bastille, July 14, 1789. The National Assembly now began in earnest the great task of preparing a constitution and regenerating France. It was soon interrupted, however, by events at Paris. The king had been advised by those about him to gather together the Swiss and German troops who formed the royal guard, so that if he decided to send the insolent deputies home he would be able to put down any disorder which might result.

On July 14 crowds of people assembled, determined to procure arms to protect themselves and mayhap to perform some daring

"deed of patriotism." One of the bands turned to the ancient fortress of the Bastille. The castle had long had a bad reputation as a place of confinement for prisoners of State and for those imprisoned by "sealed letters." When the mob demanded admission, it was naturally denied them, and they were fired upon and nearly a hundred were killed. After a brief attack the place was surrendered, and the mob rushed into the gloomy pile. They found only seven prisoners, but one poor fellow had lost his wits and another had no idea why he had been kept there for years. The captives were freed amidst great enthusiasm, and the people soon set to work to demolish the walls. The anniversary of the fall of the Bastille is still celebrated as the great national holiday of France.

754. Abolition of Feudalism, August, 1789. About the first of August news began to reach the National Assembly of the serious disorders in the provinces. In some cases the peasants burned the country houses of the nobles so as to destroy the registers enumerating the feudal dues. This led to the first important reforms of the Assembly. A momentous resolution abolishing the survivals of serfdom and other institutions of feudalism was passed in a night session (August 4–5) amid great excitement. The exclusive right of the nobility to hunt and to maintain pigeon houses was abolished, and the peasant was permitted to kill game which he found on his land. The tithes of the Church were done away with. Exemptions from the payment of taxes were abolished forever. All citizens, without distinction of birth, were thereafter to be eligible to any office. Moreover, all the peculiar privileges of the provinces were revoked and absorbed into the law common to all Frenchmen.

All France was to have the same laws, and its citizens were henceforth to be treated in the same way by the State. The Assembly soon went a step farther in consolidating and unifying France. It wiped out the old provinces altogether, by dividing the whole country into districts of convenient size, called *departments*. These were much more numerous than the ancient divisions and were named after rivers and mountains. This obliterated from the map all reminiscences of the feudal disunion.

755. The Declaration of the Rights of Man. Many of the *cahiers* had suggested that the Estates should draw up a clear statement of the rights of the individual citizen.

This Declaration (completed August 26) is one of the most notable documents in the history of Europe. It not only aroused general enthusiasm when it was first published but it appeared over and over again, in a modified form, in the succeeding French constitutions, and has been the model for similar declarations in many of the other continental states. Behind each article there was some crying evil of long standing against which the people wished to be forever protected.

The Declaration sets forth that "Men are born and remain equal in rights." "Law is the expression of the general will. Every citizen has a right to participate, personally or through his representative, in its formation. It must be the same for all." "No person shall be accused, arrested, or imprisoned except in the cases and according to the forms prescribed by law." "No one shall be disquieted on account of his opinions, including his religious views, provided that their manifestation does not disturb the public order." "Every citizen may speak, write, and print with freedom, being responsible, however, for such abuses of this freedom as shall be defined by law." Taxes were to be imposed and used according to the wishes of the people.

756. Suspicion against the Court. The king hesitated to ratify the Declaration of the Rights of Man, and about the first of October rumors spread that, under the influence of the courtiers, he was calling together troops and preparing for another attempt to put an end to the Revolution similar to that which the attack on the Bastille had frustrated. It was said that the new national colors—red, white, and blue—had been trampled under foot at a banquet at Versailles. These things, along with the scarcity of food due to the poor crops of the year, aroused the excitable Paris populace.

757. The King carried to Paris, October, 1789. On October 5 several thousand women and a number of armed men marched

out to Versailles to ask bread of the king, in whom they had great confidence personally, however suspicious they might be of his friends and advisers. Lafayette marched after the mob with the national guard to keep order, but did not prevent some of the rabble from invading the king's palace the next morning and nearly murdering the queen, who had become very unpopular.

Louis XVI

The mob declared that the king must accompany them to Paris, and he was obliged to consent. So they gayly escorted the "baker and the baker's wife and the baker's boy," as they jocularly termed the king and queen and the little dauphin, to the Palace of the Tuileries, where the king took up his residence, practically a prisoner, as it proved. The National Assembly soon followed him and resumed its sittings in a riding school near the Tuileries.

This transfer of the king and the Assembly to the capital was the first great misfortune of the Revolution. At a serious crisis the government was placed at the mercy of the leaders of the disorderly elements of Paris.

758. Confiscation of Church Property. As we have seen, the Church in France was very rich and retained many of its medieval privileges. Its higher officials, the bishops and abbots, received very large revenues, and often a single prelate held a number of rich benefices, the duties of which he neglected. The parish priests, on the other hand, who really performed the manifold and important functions of the Church, were scarcely able to live on their incomes. This unjust apportionment of the vast

revenue of the Church naturally suggested the idea that if the State seized the Church's possessions it could see that those who did the work were properly paid for it, and might, at the same time, secure a handsome sum which would help the government out of its financial troubles.

The tithes had been abolished in August along with the feudal dues. On November 2 a decree was passed providing that "All the ecclesiastical possessions are at the disposal of the nation on condition that it provides properly for the expenses of maintaining religious services, for the support of those who conduct them, and for the succor of the poor." This decree deprived the bishops and priests of their benefices and made them dependent on salaries paid by the State. The monks, monasteries, and convents, too, lost their property.[1]

759. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy. The Assembly set to work completely to reorganize the Church. The one hundred and thirty-four ancient bishoprics, some of which dated back to the Roman Empire, were replaced by the eighty-three new departments into which France had already been divided. Each of these became the diocese of a bishop, who was looked upon as an officer of the State and was to be elected by the people. The priests too were to be chosen by the people, and their salaries were much increased, so that even in the smallest villages they received over twice the minimum amount paid under the old régime.

This Civil Constitution of the Clergy was the first serious mistake on the part of the National Assembly. While the half-feudalized Church had sadly needed reform, the sweeping changes which were introduced and the proposal to have the people elect the bishops and priests shocked thousands of those who had hitherto enthusiastically applauded the great reforms which the Assembly had effected. Louis XVI gave his assent to the changes,

[1] The National Assembly resolved to issue a paper currency for which the newly acquired lands should serve as security. Of these *assignats*, as this paper money was called, about forty billions of francs were issued in the next seven years. But since so much land was thrown on the market, they were worth less and less as time went on, and ultimately a great part of them was repudiated.

but with the feeling that he might be losing his soul by so doing. From that time on he became at heart an enemy of the Revolution.

The discontent with the new system on the part of the clergy led to another serious error by the Assembly. It required the clergy to take an oath to be faithful to the law and the new French constitution. Forty-six thousand parish priests refused to sacrifice their religious scruples. As time went on, the "nonjuring" clergy were dealt with more and more harshly, and the way was prepared for the horrors of the Reign of Terror.

II. France becomes involved in a War with Other European Powers

760. Permanent Reforms of 1789. We have now studied the progress and nature of the revolution which destroyed the old régime and created modern France. Through it the unjust privileges and the local differences were abolished and the people were admitted to a share in the government. This vast reform had been accomplished without serious disturbance, and, with the exception of some of the changes in the Church, it had been welcomed with enthusiasm by the French nation.

761. Conditions leading to the Reign of Terror. This permanent and peaceful revolution was followed by a period of violence known as the Reign of Terror. This was caused not so much by the friends of the revolution as by its enemies within and without France, who were eager at any cost to undo the great work of the National Assembly. After the fall of the Bastille some of the nobility, under the leadership of the king's youngest brother, the count of Artois, had left the country. They were joined later by other nobles, and collected a little army with which they proposed to invade France and reëstablish the old régime. Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette tried to join them in June, 1791, but were arrested at Varennes near the border and brought back to Paris. The National Assembly pretended that the king had not really fled, but had been carried off by his bad advisers.

762. Declaration of Pillnitz. The queen's brother, Leopold, the Austrian ruler, was greatly agitated over the forcible arrest of the French king and declared that the European powers should combine to "check the dangerous excesses of the French Revolution," which he thought threatened the power of other monarchs. He induced the king of Prussia to join him in the famous Declaration of Pillnitz (August, 1791), in which he suggested that the European powers unite in an attempt to force the French people to give back to Louis XVI his former rights.

The Declaration was little more than an empty threat, but it seemed to the French people a sufficient proof that the monarchs were ready to help the seditious French nobles to reëstablish the old régime against the wishes of the nation and at the cost of infinite bloodshed. The idea of foreign rulers' intermeddling with their internal affairs would in itself have been intolerable to a proud people like the French, even if the permanence of the new reforms had not been endangered. Had it been the object of the allied monarchs to hasten instead of to prevent the fall of Louis XVI, they could hardly have chosen a more efficient means than the Declaration of Pillnitz.

763. The Newspapers. The political excitement and the enthusiasm for the Revolution were kept up by the newspapers which had been established, especially in Paris, since the meeting of the Estates General. The people did not need longer to rely upon an occasional pamphlet, as was the case before 1789. Many journals representing the most diverse opinions were published. Some were no more than a periodical editorial written by one man. Others, like the famous *Moniteur*, were much like our papers of today and contained news, reports of the debates in the Assembly, announcements of theaters, etc.

764. The Jacobins. Of the numerous political clubs, by far the most famous was that of the "Jacobins." When the Assembly moved into Paris, some of the representatives of the Third Estate rented a large room in the monastery of the Jacobin monks, not far from the building where the National Assembly itself met. The aim of this society was to discuss questions which were about

to come before the National Assembly. The club decided beforehand what should be the policy of its members and how they should vote.

The Jacobins rapidly developed branches of the mother society at Paris and in this way exercised a considerable control over public opinion throughout France. They were bent on opposing any return to the old institutions under which France had suffered so long. At first they were not in favor of a republic, but finally came to the conclusion that the old monarchy must be abolished.

765. Completion of the First French Constitution. At last the National Assembly put the finishing touches on the new constitution for France upon which it had been working for two years, and the king swore to observe it. The discord and suspicion of the past few months were to be forgotten. The government was turned over to the new congress or Legislative Assembly provided for in the constitution. This met for the first time October 1, 1791.

766. Problems facing the Legislative Assembly. The new assembly was made up for the most part of new and inexperienced young men. For the National Assembly had voted that none of its members should be eligible for election to the Legislative Assembly which it had created. France was in a critical condition; there was a general distrust of the king, the emigrant nobles were conspiring on the borders, foreign kings had suggested armed intervention to restore the old régime, and large classes in France itself were opposed to certain features of the new order, especially the laws concerning the Church.

The growing discord in the nation was increased by the severe edicts which the Legislative Assembly immediately issued against the emigrant nobles and the nonjuring clergy. "The Frenchmen assembled on the frontier" were ordered to return to France by January 1, 1792. If they failed to do this they were to be regarded as convicted traitors to their country, to be punished, if caught, with death, and their property was to be confiscated. Clergymen who refused to accept the Civil Constitution of the Clergy and the new constitution of the National Assembly were regarded as suspects and finally ordered to leave the country.

In this way the Assembly aroused the active hostility of a great part of the priests who had formerly supported the Third Estate. It lost, moreover, the confidence of the great mass of faithful Catholics,—merchants, artisans, and peasants,—who had approved the reforms but would not desert their religious leaders.

767. France involved in War with Austria and Prussia (1792). By far the most important act of the Legislative Assembly during the one year of its existence was its starting a war between France and Austria. It little dreamed that this was the beginning of a war between revolutionary France and the rest of western Europe which was to last, with slight interruptions, for over twenty years.

To many of the leaders in the Assembly it seemed that the existing conditions were intolerable. The emigrant nobles were forming little armies on the boundaries of France and had, as we have seen, induced Austria and Prussia to consider interfering in French affairs. The Assembly suspected that Louis was negotiating with foreign rulers and would be glad to have them intervene and reëstablish him in his old despotic power. The deputies argued, therefore, that a war against the hated Austria would unite the sympathies of the nation and force the king to show his true character, for he would be obliged either to become the nation's leader or show himself the traitor they suspected him to be.

It was with a heavy heart that the king, urged on by the clamors of the Assembly, declared war upon Austria in April, 1792. The unpopularity of the king only increased, however. In June a mob of Parisians invaded the Palace of the Tuileries, and the king might have been killed had he not consented to don the "cap of liberty," the badge of the "citizen patriots."

When France declared war Prussia immediately allied itself with Austria. As the Prussian and Austrian armies approached the French boundaries it became clearer and clearer that the king was utterly incapable of defending France, and the Assembly began to consider the question of deposing him. The duke of Brunswick, who was at the head of the Prussian forces, took the very worst means of helping the king, by issuing a manifesto in which he threatened utterly to destroy Paris should the king suffer any harm.

III. Founding of the First French Republic

768. Insurrection of August 10, 1792. Angered by this declaration and aroused by the danger, the populace of Paris again invaded the Tuileries, August 10, 1792, and the king was obliged to take refuge in the building in which the Assembly was in session. Those who instigated the attack were men who had set their heart upon doing away with the king altogether and establishing a republic. A group of them had taken possession of the city hall, pushed the old members of the municipal council from their seats, and taken the government in their own hands. In this way the members of the Paris city government (or Commune) became the leaders in the new revolution which established the first French republic.

769. France a Republic, September 22, 1792. The Assembly agreed with the Paris Commune in desiring a republic. If, as was proposed, France was henceforth to do without a king, it was obviously necessary that the monarchical constitution so recently completed should be replaced by a republican one. Consequently, the Assembly arranged that the people should elect delegates to a constitutional *Convention*, which should draw up a new system of government. The Convention met on September 21, and its first act was to abolish the ancient monarchy and proclaim France a republic. It seemed to the enthusiasts of the time that a new era of liberty had dawned, now that the long oppression by "despots" was ended forever. The twenty-second day of September, 1792, was reckoned as the first day of the Year One of French liberty.[1]

770. September Massacres (1792). Meanwhile the usurping Paris Commune had taken matters into its own hands and had brought discredit upon the cause of liberty by one of the most atrocious acts in history. On the pretext that Paris was full of traitors, who sympathized with the Austrians and the emigrant

[1] A committee of the Convention was appointed to draw up a new republican calendar. The year was divided into twelve months of thirty days each. The five days preceding September 22, at the end of the year, were holidays. Each month was divided into three *decades*, and each tenth day was a holiday. The days were no longer dedicated to saints, but to agricultural implements, vegetables, and domestic animals.

nobles, they had filled the prisons with some three thousand citizens. On September 2 and 3 hundreds of these were executed with scarcely a pretense of a trial. The members of the Commune who perpetrated this deed probably hoped to terrify those who might still dream of returning to the old system of government.

771. French Military Successes. Late in August the Prussians crossed the French boundary and on September 2 took the fortress of Verdun. It now seemed as if there was nothing to prevent their marching upon Paris. The French general, Dumouriez, blocked their advance, however, and without a pitched battle caused the enemy to retreat, for the Prussian and Austrian rulers had little interest in the war. The French now invaded Germany and took several important towns on the Rhine, including Mayence, which gladly opened its gates to them. They also occupied the Austrian Netherlands and Savoy.

772. Execution of the King, January, 1793. Meanwhile the new Convention was puzzled to determine what it was best to do with the king. A considerable party felt that he was guilty of treason in secretly encouraging the foreign powers to come to his aid. He was therefore brought to trial, and when it came to a final vote, he was, by a small majority, condemned to death. He mounted the scaffold on January 21, 1793, with the fortitude of a martyr.

773. France declares War on England, February, 1793. The exultation of the Convention over the conquests which their armies were making encouraged them to offer the assistance of the new republic to any country that wished to establish its freedom by throwing off the yoke of monarchy. They even suggested a republic to the English people. February 1, 1793, France greatly added to her embarrassments by declaring war on England, a country which proved her most inveterate enemy.

774. French Reverses. The war now began to go against the French. The allies had hitherto been suspicious of one another and fearful lest Russia should take advantage of their preoccupation with France to seize more than her share in the second partition of Poland (§ 665). They now came to an agreement.

The adjustment of their differences gave a wholly new aspect to the war with France. When in March, 1793, Spain and the Holy Roman Empire joined the coalition, France was at war with all her neighbors. The Austrians defeated Dumouriez at Neerwinden and drove the French out of the Netherlands. Dumouriez, disgusted by the failure of the Convention to support him and by their execution of the king, deserted to the enemy with a few hundred soldiers who consented to follow him.

IV. The Reign of Terror

775. The Committee of Public Safety. The loss of the Netherlands and the treason of their best general made a deep impression upon the members of the Convention. If the new French Republic was to defend itself against the "tyrants" without and its many enemies within, it could not wait for the Convention to draw up an elaborate, permanent constitution. An efficient government must be devised immediately to maintain the loyalty of the people to the Republic and to raise and equip armies and direct their commanders. The Convention accordingly put the government into the hands of a small committee, consisting originally of nine, later of twelve, of its members. This famous Committee of Public Safety was given practically unlimited powers. "We must," one of the leaders exclaimed, "establish the despotism of liberty in order to crush the despotism of kings."

776. The Girondists. Within the Convention itself there were two groups of active men who came into bitter conflict over the policy to be pursued. There was, first, the party of the Girondists, so called because their leaders came from the department of Gironde, in which the great city of Bordeaux lay. They were moderate republicans and counted among their numbers some speakers of remarkable eloquence. They were not, however, men of sufficient decision to direct affairs in the terrible difficulties in which France found herself after the execution of the king. They consequently lost their influence, and a new party, called the Mountain from the high seats that they occupied in the Convention, gained the ascendancy.

777. The Extreme Republican "Mountain." This was composed of the most vigorous and uncompromising Jacobins. They believed that the French people had been depraved by the slavery to which their kings had subjected them. Everything, they argued, which suggested the former rule of kings must be wiped out. A new France should be created in which Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity should take the place of the tyranny of princes, the insolence of nobles, and the exactions of the priests. The leaders of the Mountain held that the mass of the people were by nature good and upright, but that there were a number of adherents of the old system who would, if they could, undo the great work of the Revolution and lead the people back to slavery, as formerly under a king. All who were suspected by the Mountain of having the least sympathy with the nobles or persecuted priests were branded as counter-revolutionary. The Mountain was willing to resort to any measures, however shocking, to rid the nation of those suspected of counter-revolutionary tendencies, and its leaders relied upon the populace of Paris, which had been disappointed that "liberty" had not bettered the hard conditions of life as it had hoped, to aid them in reaching their ends.

778. Civil War in France. In June, 1793, the Convention was surrounded by a Paris mob demanding the expulsion of the Girondists. The leaders of this party of moderation were arrested, and the power in the Convention fell into the hands of the extreme Jacobins of the Mountain. This act of violence was resented by the great cities of Bordeaux, Marseilles, and Lyons, who favored the Girondists and hated the Mountain and its ally, the Paris mob. These cities therefore ventured to revolt against the Convention. Moreover, the peasants in the old province of Brittany, who still loved the monarchy, rebelled against those who had killed their king and were persecuting the priests. So the Committee of Public Safety had to face a civil war in addition to the attacks of foreign powers. But it succeeded in quelling the rebellions at home and in organizing armies of enthusiastic republicans, who drove off the enemy so that by the end of the year all danger from invasion was past.

779. The Reign of Terror. A special court, called the Revolutionary Tribunal, had been established to try all those suspected of being opposed to the Mountain and the new Republic. A terrible law was passed declaring all those "suspects" who by their acts or remarks had shown themselves "enemies of liberty." The wives, fathers and mothers, and children of all the emigrant nobles were to be imprisoned. The guillotine was used to cut off the heads of those convicted of being counter-revolutionists.

In October the queen, Marie Antoinette, after a trial in which false and atrocious charges were brought against her,[1] was executed in Paris, and a number of high-minded and distinguished persons suffered a like fate. But the most horrible acts of the Reign of Terror were perpetrated in the provinces, where deputies of the Committee of Public Safety were sent with almost absolute military power to crush rebellions. A representative of the Convention had thousands of the people of Nantes shot down or drowned. The Convention proposed to destroy the great city of Lyons altogether, and, though this decree was only partially carried out, thousands of its citizens were executed.[2]

780. Split in the Mountain. Soon the radical party which was conducting the government began to disagree among themselves. Danton, a man of fiery zeal for the Republic, who had hitherto enjoyed great popularity with the Jacobins, became tired of bloodshed and believed that the system of terror was no longer necessary. On the other hand, Hébert, the leader of the Commune, felt that the Revolution was not yet complete. He proposed, for example, that the worship of Reason should be substituted for the worship of God, and arranged a service in the great church of Notre Dame, where Reason, in the person of a handsome actress, took her place on the altar. The most powerful member

[1] She had, like the king, been guilty of encouraging the enemies of France to intervene.

[2] It should not be forgotten that very few of the people at Paris stood in any fear of the guillotine. The city during the Reign of Terror was not the gloomy place that we might imagine. Never did the inhabitants appear happier, never were the theaters and restaurants more crowded. The guillotine was making away with the enemies of liberty, so the women wore tiny guillotines as ornaments, and the children were given toy guillotines and amused themselves decapitating the figures of "aristocrats."

of the Committee of Public Safety was Robespierre, who, although he was insignificant in person and a tiresome speaker, enjoyed a great reputation for republican virtue. He disapproved alike of Danton's moderation and of the worship of Reason advocated by the Commune. Through his influence the leaders of both the moderate and the extreme party were executed (March and April, 1794).

Maximilian Robespierre

781. Fall of Robespierre, July 27, 1794. It was of course impossible for Robespierre to maintain his dictatorship for long. When he had the Revolutionary Tribunal divided into sections and greatly increased the rapidity of the executions with a view of destroying all his enemies, his colleagues in the Convention began to fear that he would demand their heads next. A coalition was formed against him, and the Convention ordered his arrest.[1] He called upon the Commune to defend him, but the Convention roused Paris against the Commune, which was no longer powerful enough to intimidate the whole city, and he and his supporters were sent to the guillotine.

In successfully overthrowing Robespierre the Convention and Committee of Public Safety had rid the country of the only man who, owing to his popularity and his reputation for uprightness, could have prolonged the Reign of Terror. There was an immediate reaction after his death, for the country was weary of executions. The Revolutionary Tribunal henceforth convicted very

[1] The date of Robespierre's fall is generally known as the Ninth of Thermidor, the day and month of the republican calendar.

few of those who were brought before it. Indeed, it turned upon those who had themselves been the leaders in the worst atrocities; for example, the public prosecutor, who had brought hundreds of victims to the guillotine in Paris, and the brutes who had ordered the massacres at Nantes and Lyons. Within a few months the Jacobin Club at Paris was closed by the Convention, and the Commune abolished. In this way the Reign of Terror came to an end.

782. Constitution of the Year Three. The Convention now at last turned its attention to the great work for which it had originally been summoned and drew up a constitution for the Republic to take the place of the first French constitution which was monarchical. This provided that the law-making power should be vested in a legislative assembly consisting of two houses. The lower house was called the Council of the Five Hundred, and the upper chamber the Council of the Elders. Members of the latter were required to be at least forty years of age. The executive powers were put in the hands of a *Directory* of five persons, to be chosen by the two chambers.

783. End of the Convention, October, 1795. In October, 1795, the Convention finally dissolved itself, having governed the country during three years of unprecedented excitement, danger, and disorder. While it was responsible for the horrors of the Reign of Terror, its committees had carried France through the terrible crisis of 1793. The civil war had been brought to a speedy end, and the coalition of foreign powers had been defeated. Meanwhile other committees appointed by the Convention had been quietly working upon the problem of bettering the system of education, which had been taken by the State out of the hands of the clergy. Progress had also been made toward establishing a single system of law for the whole country to replace the old confusion. The new republican calendar was not destined to survive many years, but the metric system of weights and measures introduced by the Convention has now been adopted by most European countries and is used by men of science in England and America.

On the other hand, the Reign of Terror, the depreciated paper currency,[1] and many hasty and unwise laws passed by the Convention had produced all sorts of disorder and uncertainty. The Directory did little to better conditions, and it was not until Napoleon's strong hand grasped the helm of government in the year 1800 that order was really restored.

QUESTIONS

I. What were Calonne's plans, and why did they fail? How did the Estates General come to be summoned in 1789? What were the chief questions raised in regard to their organization? What were the *cahiers*, and upon what main points did they agree? By what process did the Estates General turn into a national assembly? What were the causes and results of the attack on the Bastille? What were the chief provisions of the decree abolishing the feudal system? Give an account of the Declaration of the Rights of Man. Under what conditions was the National Assembly moved to Paris? What were the reforms made in the French Church? What immediate results did they have on the course of the Revolution?

II. Who were the emigrant nobles, and what was their plan? What were the results of the king's attempted flight in June, 1791? What was the Declaration of Pillnitz? Who were the Jacobins? What various kinds of matter do we find in a modern newspaper? What measures were taken against the emigrant nobles and the nonjuring clergy? Why did the Legislative Assembly declare war on Austria?

III. How was the First French Republic established? Do you see any good reasons for the execution of Louis XVI? Why did France declare war on England? With what European powers was France at war by the spring of 1793?

IV. What was the need of a Committee of Public Safety? Who were the Girondists? the Mountain? What led to civil war in France, and what was the outcome of it? What do you understand by the Reign of Terror? Can you give any justification of the harsh measures taken by the Convention and its committees? What were Robespierre's views? What were the reasons for his fall? Describe the constitution of the Year Three. Review the chief acts of the Convention.

[1] See page 437 n. There were about forty billions of francs in assignats in circulation at the opening of 1796. At that time it required nearly three hundred francs in paper money to procure one in specie.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE CAREER OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

I. How General Bonaparte became Ruler of France

784. The Napoleonic Period. The former military leaders of France had usually belonged to the nobility. During the Revolution they had either run away or been discredited as suspected enemies of the new Republic. Those who led the French troops to victory under the Reign of Terror were for the most part sprung from the people and had been selected by the Committee of Public Safety on account of their ability and not on account of aristocratic birth. Among the new commanders there was one who was destined to dominate the history of Europe for fifteen years as no man before him had ever done. The influence of Napoleon Bonaparte was indeed so overmastering that the epoch we are now entering may properly be called the Napoleonic Period.

785. Early Life of Bonaparte. General Bonaparte was born on the island of Corsica, August 15, 1769. He was of Italian origin and spoke Italian as a boy, although the island had been annexed to France shortly before his birth. He was sent to a French military school and then entered the French army. He managed to show his extraordinary skill in military matters, and in the spring of 1796, when twenty-seven years of age, he was made commander in chief of an army which the French Directory had organized to invade Italy. This was the beginning of a career of conquest which hardly finds a parallel in history, except that of Alexander the Great.

786. Bonaparte's Italian Campaign (1796–1797). The French Republic had driven back its enemies in the autumn of 1793 and

taken possession of the Austrian Netherlands and western Germany. Prussia decided to withdraw from a war in which it was not much interested and concluded peace with the new French Republic. Bonaparte's army was directed against Austria and the

CENTRAL EUROPE, TO ILLUSTRATE NAPOLEON'S CAMPAIGNS, 1796–1801

king of Sardinia (who ruled over northwestern Italy). In a rapid and brilliant campaign he defeated both these enemies and marched his army nearly to Vienna. He forced Austria to make peace and cede the Netherlands to France. She also agreed to help France get the whole western bank of the Rhine. Bonaparte brought the ancient republic of Venice to an end, giving a part of it to Austria and incorporating the western part into a new state called the Cisalpine Republic, which he patched together out of the small Italian states.

787. Bonaparte's Ambition. Bonaparte paid little attention to the wishes of the Directory and managed affairs as if he were already ruler of France. He set up a court near Milan as if he were a king. He declared that he was just at the beginning of his career, and seems already to have dreamed of making himself head not only of France but of Europe. He was a short man, very thin at this time, with searching eyes and rapid, if somewhat incorrect, speech. He was at once a dreamer and a man of supreme practical ability. He once told a friend that when he was a poor young lieutenant with no prospects he was wont to imagine just how he would wish things to be; then he would consider the exact steps to be taken. His utter unscrupulousness, tireless energy, and extraordinary military genius brought him to his goal. At twenty-eight he was head of the French armies; at thirty he was destined to become the ruler of France itself.

EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN

788. The Egyptian Expedition. Bonaparte foresaw that the Directory was likely to get into trouble with the European powers, and so he decided to leave them to discredit themselves and show their weakness and incapacity. He organized an expedition to Egypt with the idea of cutting off Great Britain's commerce with the East and perhaps seizing her possessions in India. He managed to land his army safely at Alexandria, but the British fleet under Nelson destroyed the French fleet as it lay in the harbor and cut Bonaparte off from Europe. He easily defeated the troops of the Turkish Sultan, who was ruler of Egypt, in the famous

NAPOLEON IN EGYPT

A group of French scholars accompanied Napoleon's army, and the serious study of Egyptology dates from his expedition

NAPOLEON CROSSING THE ST. BERNARD

battle of the Pyramids (July 1, 1798) and then made an unsuccessful expedition into Syria. Here he received news from Europe which led him to desert the army in Egypt and hasten back with a few of his best officers. He reached France in October, 1799.

789. Bonaparte overthrows the Directory (November, 1799). The Directory, one of the most corrupt and inefficient bodies the world has ever seen, had completely disgraced itself at home and become involved again in a new war with Austria. Bonaparte enjoyed sufficient support to overthrow the Directory a month after his return and have himself chosen *First Consul.* This *coup d'état,* or "stroke of state" as the French called it, put Bonaparte at the head of the government. He had a new constitution drawn up which was ratified by a vote of the nation.

790. Bonaparte Acceptable as First Consul. The accession of the popular young general to power was undoubtedly grateful to the majority of citizens, who longed above all for a stable government. The Swedish envoy wrote just after the *coup d'état*: "A legitimate monarch has perhaps never found a people more ready to do his bidding than Bonaparte, and it would be inexcusable if this talented general did not take advantage of this to introduce a better form of government upon a firmer basis. It is literally true that France will perform impossibilities in order to aid him in this. The people (with the exception of a despicable horde of anarchists) are so sick and weary of revolutionary horrors and folly that they believe that any change cannot fail to be for the better. . . . Even the royalists, whatever their views may be, are sincerely devoted to Bonaparte, for they attribute to him the intention of gradually restoring the old order of things. The indifferent element cling to him as the one most likely to give France peace. The enlightened republicans, although they tremble for their form of government, prefer to see a single man of talent possess himself of the power than a club of intriguers."

791. Necessity of renewing the War. Upon becoming First Consul, General Bonaparte found France at war with England, Russia, Austria, Turkey, and Naples. These powers had formed a coalition in December, 1798, had defeated the armies that the

Directory sent against them, and undone Bonaparte's work in Italy. It now devolved upon him to reëstablish the prestige of France abroad, as well as to restore order and prosperity at home. Besides, he had to keep himself before the people as a military hero if he wished to maintain his supremacy.

II. How Bonaparte secured Peace in 1801 and reorganized Germany

792. Napoleon crosses the Alps. Early in the year 1800 Bonaparte began secretly to collect an army near Dijon. This he proposed to direct against an Austrian army which was besieging the French in Genoa. Instead of marching straight into Italy, as would have been most natural, the First Consul resolved to take the Austrian forces in the rear. Emulating Hannibal, he led his troops over the famous Alpine pass of the Great St. Bernard, dragging his cannon over in the trunks of trees which had been hollowed out for the purpose. He arrived safely in Milan on the second of June to the utter astonishment of the Austrians, who were taken completely by surprise.

793. Battle of Marengo, June, 1800. Bonaparte defeated the Austrians in the famous battle of Marengo (June 14), and added one more to the list of his great military successes. A truce was signed next day, and the Austrians retreated eastward, leaving Bonaparte to restore French influence in northern Italy. The districts that he had "freed" had to support his army, and the reëstablished Cisalpine Republic was forced to pay a monthly tax of two million francs.

794. General Pacification (1801–1802). A second victory gained by the French in December of the same year brought Austria to terms, and she agreed to conclude a separate peace with the French Republic. This was the beginning of a general pacification. During the year 1801–1802 treaties were signed with all the powers with which France had been at war, even with England, who had not laid down her arms since war was first declared in 1793.

795. Cession of the Left Bank of the Rhine to France. In the treaty signed by Austria at Lunéville in February, 1801, the emperor agreed, on his own part and on the part of the Holy Roman Empire, that the French Republic should thereafter possess in full sovereignty the territories lying on the left bank of the Rhine which belonged to the Holy Roman Empire, and that thereafter the Rhine should form the boundary of France from the point where it left Switzerland to where it flowed into Dutch territory. As a natural consequence of this cession various princes and states of the Empire found themselves dispossessed, either wholly or in part, of their lands. The Empire bound itself to furnish the hereditary princes who had lost possessions on the left bank of the Rhine with "an indemnity within the Empire."

796. Secularization of Church Lands. This provision implied a veritable transformation of the old Holy Roman Empire, which, except for the development of Prussia, was still in pretty much the same condition as in Luther's time (§ 514). There was no unoccupied land to give the dispossessed princes; but there were two classes of states in the Empire that did not belong to *hereditary* princes; namely, the ecclesiastical states and the free towns. As the churchmen,—archbishops, bishops, and abbots,—who ruled over the ecclesiastical states, were forbidden by the rules of the Church to marry, they could of course have no lawful heirs. Should an ecclesiastical ruler be deprived of his realms, he might, therefore, be indemnified by a pension for life, with no fear of any injustice to heirs, since there could be none. The transfer of the lands of an ecclesiastical prince to a lay, that is, hereditary, prince was called *secularization*. As for the towns, once so powerful and important, they had lost their former influence and were defenseless.

797. Decree redistributing German Territory (1803). A decree issued by the diet of the Holy Roman Empire in 1803 transferred all the ecclesiastical states, except the electorate of Mayence, to lay rulers. Of the forty-eight imperial cities only six were left. Three of these still exist as republican members of the present German federation; namely, the Hanseatic towns—Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck. Bavaria received the bishoprics of

Würzburg, Bamberg, Augsburg, Freising, and a number of the imperial cities. Baden received the bishoprics of Constance, Basel, Speyer, etc. The knights who had lost their possessions on the left bank were not indemnified, and those on the right bank were deprived of their political rights within the next two or three years by the several states within whose boundaries they lay.

798. Partial Unification of Germany. The final distribution was preceded by a bitter and undignified scramble among the princes for additional bits of territory. All turned to Paris for favors, since the First Consul, and not the German diet, was really the arbiter in the matter. Germany never sank to a lower degree of national degradation than at this period. But this amalgamation was, nevertheless, the beginning of her political regeneration; for without the consolidation of the hundreds of practically independent little states into a few well-organized monarchies, such a union as the later German Empire would have been impossible, and the country must have remained indefinitely in its traditional impotency. *Thus Germany owes to a French ruler, not to any of its emperors or to Prussia, the first measures which resulted in the German Empire!*

799. Extension of French Influence. The treaties of 1801 left France in possession of the Austrian Netherlands and the left bank of the Rhine, to which increase of territory Piedmont was soon added. Holland became the Batavian Republic and, with the Italian (originally the Cisalpine) Republic, came under French control and contributed money and troops for the forwarding of French interests.

III. Bonaparte restores Order and Prosperity in France

800. The Demoralized Condition of France. The activity of the extraordinary man who had placed himself at the head of the French Republic was by no means confined to the important alterations of the map of Europe described above. He was indefatigable in carrying out a series of internal reforms second

only in importance to those of the great Revolution of 1789. The Reign of Terror and the incompetence of the Directory's government had left France in a very bad plight.[1] The finances were in a terrible condition. These the First Consul adjusted with great skill, quickly restored the national credit, and established the Bank of France.

801. Adjustment of Relations with the Church. He then set about adjusting the great problem of the nonjuring clergy, who were still under suspicion for refusing to sanction the Civil Constitution of the Clergy (§ 759). Under the slack rule of the Directory persecution had ceased and priests were again officiating in thousands of parishes. Their churches were now formally given back to them. All imprisoned priests were freed, on promising not to oppose the constitution. Their churches were given back to them, and the distinction between "nonjuring" and "constitutional" clergymen was obliterated. Sunday, which had been abolished by the republican calendar, was once more observed, and all the revolutionary holidays, except July 14—the anniversary of the fall of the Bastille—and the first day of the republican year, were done away with. A formal treaty with the Pope, the Concordat of 1801, was concluded, which revoked some of the provisions of the Civil Constitution, especially the election of the priests and bishops by the people, and recognized the Pope as the head of the Church. It is noteworthy, however, that Bonaparte did not restore to the Church its ancient possessions and that he reserved to himself the right to appoint the bishops, as the former kings had done.

802. Emigrant Nobles permitted to Return. As for the emigrant nobles, Bonaparte decreed that no more names should be added to the lists. The striking of names from the list and the return of confiscated lands that had not already been sold he made favors to be granted by himself. Parents and relatives of emigrants were no longer to be regarded as incapable of holding

[1] The roads were dilapidated and the harbors filled with sand; taxes were unpaid, robbery prevailed, and there was a general decline in industry. A manufacturer in Paris who had employed from sixty to eighty workmen now had but ten. The lace, paper, and linen industries were as good as destroyed.

public offices. In April, 1802, a general amnesty was granted, and no less than forty thousand families returned to France.

803. Old Habits Resumed. There was a gradual reaction from the fantastic innovations of the Reign of Terror. The old titles of address, "Monsieur" and "Madame," were again used instead of the revolutionary "Citizen." Streets which had been rebaptized with republican names resumed their former ones. Old titles of nobility were revived, and something very like a royal court began to develop at the Palace of the Tuileries; for, except in name, Bonaparte was already a king, and his wife, Josephine, a queen.

804. The *Code Napoléon*. The heterogeneous laws of the old régime had been much modified by the legislation of the successive assemblies. All this needed a final revision, and Bonaparte appointed a commission to undertake this great task. Their draft of the new code was discussed in the Council of State, and the First Consul had many suggestions to make. The resulting codification of the civil law—the *Code Napoléon*—is still used today, not only in France but also, with some modifications, in Rhenish Prussia, Bavaria, Baden, Holland, Belgium, Italy, and even in the state of Louisiana.

805. Bonaparte becomes Emperor Napoleon I. In May, 1804, Bonaparte was given the title of "Emperor," and in December he was crowned, as the successor of Charlemagne, with great pomp in the cathedral of Notre Dame. He at once proceeded to establish a new nobility to take the place of that abolished by the first National Assembly in 1790.

IV. How Napoleon destroyed the Holy Roman Empire

806. Napoleon aspires to be Ruler of Europe. A great majority of the French undoubtedly longed for peace, but Napoleon's position made war a personal advantage for him in increasing his power. No one saw this more clearly than he. "I shall put up with peace," he said to his advisers in 1802, "as long as our

neighbors can maintain it, but I shall regard it as an advantage if they force me to take up my arms again before they are rusted."

On another occasion, in 1804, Napoleon said, "There will be no rest in Europe until it is under a single chief—an emperor who shall have kings for officers, who shall distribute kingdoms to his lieutenants." This was his ideal, which he now found himself in a situation to carry out with marvelous exactness.

807. England's Opposition to Napoleon. There were many reasons why the peace with England (concluded at Amiens in March, 1802) should be speedily broken, especially as the First Consul was not averse to a renewal of the war. The obvious intention of Napoleon to bring as much of Europe under his control as he could, and the imposition of high duties on English goods in those territories that he already controlled, filled commercial and industrial England with apprehension. The English people longed for peace, but peace appeared only to offer an opportunity to the Corsican usurper to ruin England by a continuous war upon her commerce. This was the secret of England's persistence. All the other European powers concluded peace with Napoleon at some time during his reign. England alone did not lay down her arms a second time until the emperor of the French was a prisoner.

808. Renewal of War with England. In 1803 war was renewed between France and England.[1] Napoleon declared the whole coast of western Europe from Holland to southern Italy blockaded against all English ships. He collected an army at Boulogne, just across the Channel from England, which filled the English with fear lest he might succeed in invading their country. He did not make the attempt, however, for the transportation of a large body of troops on flatboats would have been very hazardous.

809. The War of 1805 and its Results. Meanwhile a number of the European states, including this time Russia as well as

[1] At this time an event of great importance for the United States took place. The vast Louisiana territory, which France had ceded to Spain at the end of the Seven Years' War forty years before (§ 677), had been returned to France when the peace of 1801 was concluded. Now Napoleon, finding himself in need of funds, decided to sell the region to the United States. In this way an extensive region was taken away from European control and later developed into a series of states forming an essential part of the great American republic.

England and Austria, had joined in a great coalition to put an end to Napoleon's power. In August, 1805, Napoleon decided to turn his army eastward and give up the plan for invading the British Isles. He had at least succeeded in terrifying England. One of the Austrian commanders exhibited the most surprising incapacity in allowing himself to be shut up in Ulm, where he was forced to capitulate with all his troops (October 20). Napoleon then marched down the Danube with little opposition, and before the middle of November Vienna was in the possession of French troops. Napoleon thereupon led his forces north to meet the allied armies of Austria and Russia; these he defeated, on December 2, in the terrible winter battle of Austerlitz. Russia then withdrew for a time and signed an armistice; and Austria was obliged to submit to a humiliating peace, the Treaty of Pressburg. By this treaty Austria ceded various territories in Italy to Napoleon and consented to permit his friends the rulers of Bavaria and Würtemberg to assume the title of "King."

810. The Dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire (1806). Napoleon had no desire to unify Germany; he merely wished to maintain a certain number of independent states, or groups of states, which he could conveniently control. He had provided, in the Treaty of Pressburg, that the newly created sovereigns should enjoy the "plenitude of sovereignty," precisely as did the rulers of Austria and Prussia.

This treaty, by explicitly declaring several of the most important of the German states altogether independent of the emperor, rendered the further existence of the Holy Roman Empire impossible. The emperor, Francis II, accordingly abdicated, August 6, 1806. Thus the most imposing and enduring political office known to history was formally abolished.

811. Francis II assumes the Title of "Emperor of Austria." Francis II did not, however, cease to be an "emperor." Shortly after the First Consul had received that title Francis adopted the title "Emperor of Austria," to designate him as the ruler of all the possessions of his house.[1] Hitherto he had been officially

[1] Thus Francis II of the Holy Roman Empire became Francis I of Austria.

known as King of Hungary, Bohemia, Dalmatia, Croatia, Galicia, and Laodomeria, Duke of Lorraine, Venice, Salzburg, etc., Grand Duke of Transylvania, Margrave of Moravia, etc.

812. The Confederation of the Rhine. Meanwhile Napoleon had organized a union of the southern German states, called the Confederation of the Rhine, and had assumed its headship as "Protector." This he had done, he assured Europe, "in the dearest interests of his people and of his neighbors," adding the pious hope that the French armies had crossed the Rhine for the last time, and that the people of Germany would witness no longer, "except in the annals of the past, the horrible pictures of disorder, devastation, and slaughter that war invariably brings with it." In reality, however, Napoleon was enlarging his empire by erecting dependent states east of the Rhine.

Francis I of Austria

Immediately after the battle of Austerlitz Napoleon proclaimed that the king of Naples, who had allied himself with the English, had ceased to reign, and French generals were ordered to occupy Naples. In March, 1806, he made his brother Joseph king of Naples and Sicily, his brother Louis king of Holland, and his brother-in-law, Murat, duke of Cleves and Berg. These states and those of his German allies constituted what he called "the real French Empire."

813. Prussia forced into War with France. One of the most important of the continental states had taken no part as yet in the opposition to the extension of Napoleon's power. Prussia, the first power to conclude peace with the new French Republic in 1795, had since that time maintained a strict neutrality.

Napoleon's conduct toward Prussia was most insolent. After setting her at enmity with England by promising that she should have Hanover, he unblushingly offered to restore the electorate to George III. His insults now began to arouse the national spirit in Prussia, and the reluctant Frederick William III was forced by the party in favor of war to break with Napoleon.

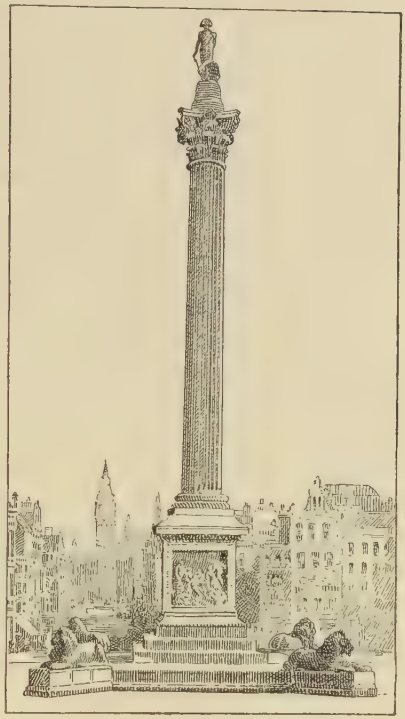
814. Campaign of Jena (1806). Prussia's army was, however, as has been well said, "only that of Frederick the Great grown twenty years older"; one of Frederick's generals, the aged duke of Brunswick, who had issued the famous manifesto in 1792 (§ 767, end), was its leader. A single defeat, near Jena (October 14, 1806), put Prussia completely in the hands of her enemy. This one disaster produced complete demoralization throughout the country. Fortresses were surrendered without resistance, and the king fled to the uttermost parts of his realm on the Russian boundary.

815. Treaties of Tilsit (1807). Napoleon now led his army into Poland, where he spent the winter in operations against Russia. He closed an arduous campaign by a signal victory at Friedland (June 14, 1807), which was followed by the treaties of Tilsit with Russia and Prussia (July 7 and 9). Prussia was thoroughly defeated. Frederick William III lost all his possessions to the west of the Elbe and all that Prussia had gained in the second and third partitions of Poland. The Polish territory Napoleon made into a new subject kingdom called the grand duchy of Warsaw, and chose his friend the king of Saxony as its ruler. Out of the western lands of Prussia, which he later united with Hanover, he created the kingdom of Westphalia for his brother Jerome. Russia, on the other hand, was treated with marked consideration.

816. The Continental Blockade. Napoleon's most persevering enemy, England, still remained unconquered and inaccessible. Just as Napoleon was undertaking his successful campaign against Austria in 1805, Nelson had annihilated a second French fleet in the renowned naval engagement of Trafalgar, off the coast of Spain. It seemed more than ever necessary, therefore, to ruin

England commercially and industrially, since there was obviously no likelihood of subduing her by arms.

817. The Berlin Decree and the "Paper" Blockade. In May, 1806, England had declared the coast from the Elbe to Brest to be blockaded. Napoleon replied to this with the Berlin decree (November 21, 1806), in which he proclaimed it a monstrous abuse of the right for England to declare great stretches of coast in a state of blockade which her whole fleet would be unable to enforce. He retaliated with a "paper"[1] blockade of the British Isles, which forbade all commerce with them. Letters or packages directed to England or to an Englishman or written in the English language were not to be permitted to pass through the mails in the countries he controlled. Every English subject in countries occupied by French troops or in the territory of Napoleon's



NELSON'S COLUMN, TRAFALGAR SQUARE, LONDON

The English regard Nelson as the man who safeguarded their liberty by the victories of the fleet. Nelson was killed at Trafalgar and buried with great ceremony in the crypt of St. Paul's, under the very center of the dome. Some years later "Trafalgar Square" was laid out at the point where the street leading to the Parliament buildings joins a chief business street—the Strand—and a gigantic column to Nelson erected, surmounted by a statue of the admiral. In the distance one can see the towers of the Parliament buildings

[1] That is, a blockade which includes too long a stretch of coast to permit the ships at the disposal of the power proclaiming the blockade really to enforce it.

allies was to be regarded as a prisoner of war and his property as a lawful prize. All trade in English goods was forbidden.

A year later England established a similar paper blockade of the ports of the French Empire and its allies, but permitted the ships of neutral powers to proceed, provided that they touched at an English port, secured a license from the English government, and paid a heavy export duty. Napoleon promptly declared all ships that submitted to these humiliating regulations to be lawful prizes of French privateers.

818. The Plight of the United States. The ships of the United States were at this time the most numerous and important of the neutral vessels carrying on the world's trade, and a very hard time they had between the restrictions of Great Britain and the decrees issued by Napoleon. An American newspaper calculated that if an American ship consented to meet England's regulations and pay all the charges she imposed for licenses and dues, the amount to be paid for a single voyage, let us say from Baltimore to Holland and back, would amount to thirty thousand dollars—a large sum in those days.

Exasperated by the situation, Congress, at the suggestion of President Jefferson, passed an embargo act (December, 1807), which forbade vessels to leave port. It was hoped that this would prevent the further loss of American ships and would at the same time so interfere with the supplies of England and France that it would bring them to terms. But the only result was the destruction of the previously flourishing business of the Atlantic coast towns, especially in New England. Early in 1809 Congress decided to permit trade once more with European nations, except England and France; but conditions remained very bad, and the United States finally drifted into war with Great Britain in 1812.

819. Question of the Freedom of the Seas. It is very interesting to compare the situation of the United States during the Napoleonic wars with that in which she was placed when Germany and England resorted to similar blockades during the World War. In both cases the United States was drawn into the conflict. America can never be indifferent to European struggles

which endanger the lives of passengers and crews and threaten the destruction of cargoes. All warring nations are likely to disregard the rights of neutrals, and it was such disregard on Germany's part which finally led Congress in 1917 to recognize that a state of war existed between Germany and the United States.

820. Napoleon's Effort to make Europe Independent Economically. Napoleon tried to render Europe permanently independent of the colonial productions brought from English colonies and by English ships. He encouraged the substitution of chicory for coffee, the cultivation of the sugar beet, and the discovery of new dyes to replace those coming from the tropics. But the distress caused by the disturbance in trade produced great discontent, especially in Russia; it rendered the domination of Napoleon more and more distasteful and finally contributed to his downfall.

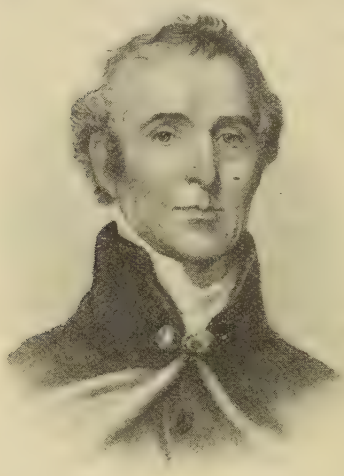
V. Napoleon at the Height of his Power (1808–1812)

821. Napoleon's Public Improvements. France owed much to Napoleon, for he had restored order and guaranteed many of the beneficent achievements of the Revolution of 1789. His boundless ambition was, it is true, sapping her strength by forcing younger and younger men into his armies in order to build up the vast international federation of which he dreamed. But his victories and the commanding position to which he had raised France could not but fill the nation with pride.

He sought to gain popular approval by great public improvements. He built marvelous roads across the Alps and along the Rhine, which still fill the traveler with admiration. He beautified Paris by opening up wide streets and quays and building magnificent bridges and triumphal arches that kept fresh in the people's minds the recollection of his victories. By these means he gradually converted a medieval town into the most beautiful of modern capitals.

822. The Question of Spain. Napoleon decided, after Tilsit, that the Spanish peninsula must be brought under his control.

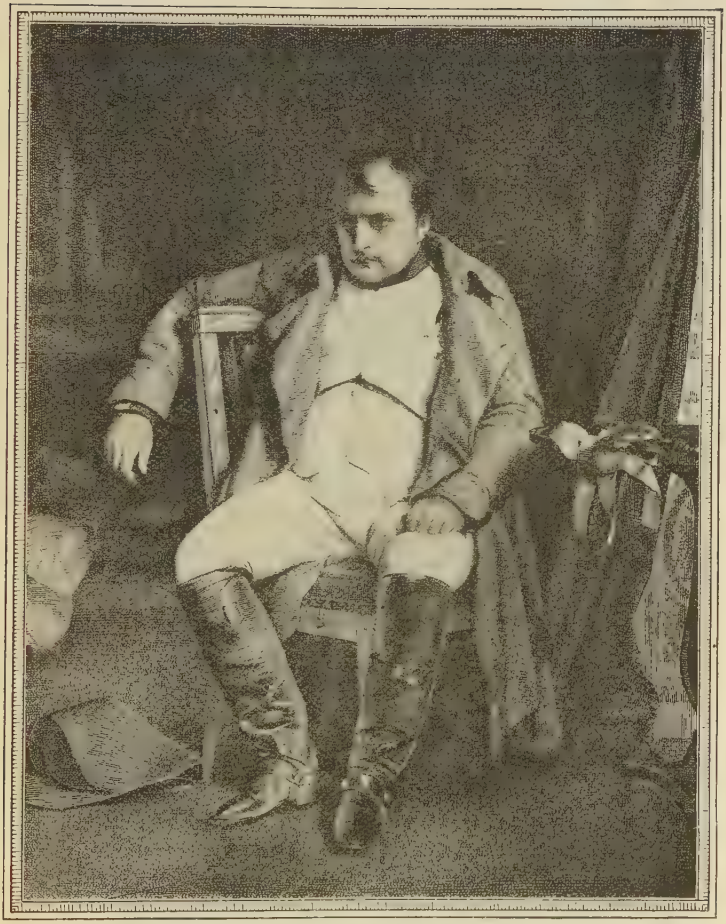
Portugal was too friendly to the English, and Spain, owing to serious dissensions in the royal family, seemed an easy prey. In the spring of 1808 Napoleon induced both the king and the crown prince of Spain to meet him at Bayonne. Here he was able to persuade or force both of them to surrender their rights to the throne, and on June 6 he appointed his brother Joseph king of Spain. The Spanish, however, rebelled against this arrangement and with the help of English troops under Wellington, who had landed in Portugal, defeated the French armies.



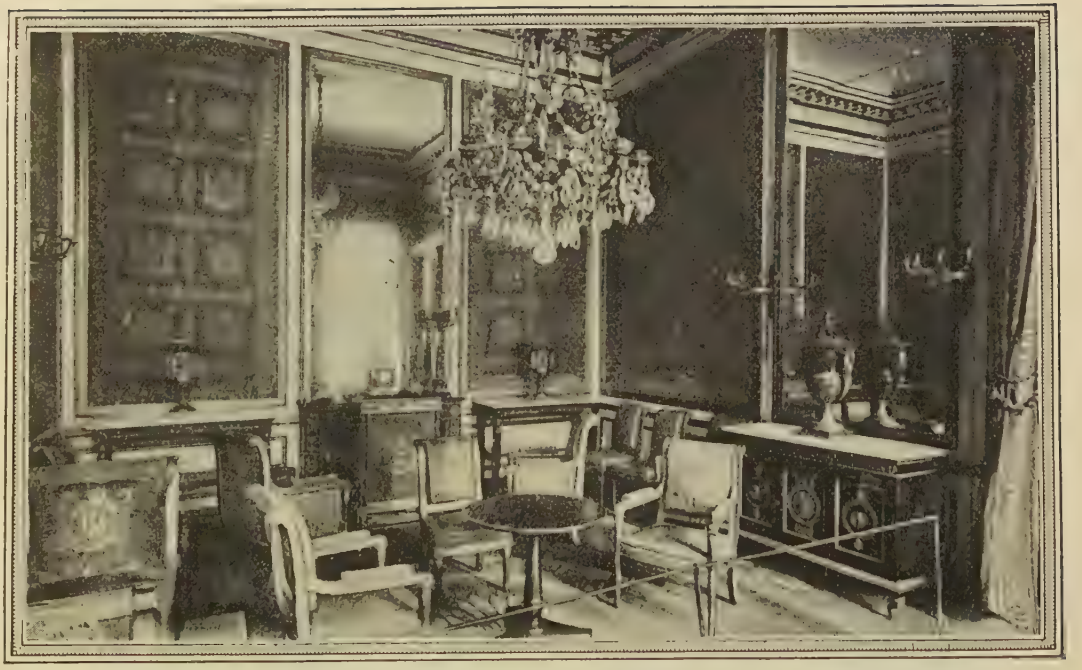
Duke of Wellington

In November the French emperor himself led a magnificent army into Spain, no less than two hundred thousand strong. The Spanish troops, perhaps one hundred thousand in number, were, on the other hand, ill clad and inadequately equipped; what was worse, they were overconfident in view of their late victory. They were of course defeated, and Madrid surrendered on December 4. Napoleon immediately abolished the Inquisition, the feudal dues, the internal customs lines, and two thirds of the cloisters. This is typical of the way in which the French Revolution went forth in arms to spread its principles throughout western Europe.

823. The Peninsular War. The next month Napoleon was back in Paris, as he saw that he had another war with Austria on his hands. He left Joseph on his insecure throne, after assuring the Spanish that God had given the French emperor the power and the will to overcome all obstacles. He was soon to discover, however, that these very Spaniards could maintain a guerrilla warfare against which his best troops and most distinguished generals



Napoleon Meditating



THE ROOM AT FONTAINEBLEAU IN WHICH NAPOLEON WROTE HIS ABDICATION

EUROPE
AT THE
TIME OF NAPOLEON'S
GREATEST POWER
ABOUT 1810
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400
Empire of France
Dependencies
Longitude West 10° from Greenwich 5°
15°
0°
5°
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
SCOTLAND
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Newcastle
KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
IRELAND
Limerick
Dublin
Liverpool
Manchester
Cork
ENGLAND
Oxford
London
Bristol
Plymouth
Dover
The Hague
Boulogne
Brussels
Waterloo
Brest
Versailles
Paris
Fontainebleau
EMPIRE OF FRANCE
Loire R.
Nantes
Orleans
Langres
Rochefort
Lyons
Bordeaux
Rhone R.
Avignon
Bayonne
Toulouse
Marseilles
Toulon
Coruña
Galicia
Burgos
Oporto
Valladolid
Ebro
Salamanca
Saragossa
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
Ciudad Rodrigo
Talavera
Madrid
Torres Vedras
Lisbon
Tagus
Portosa
Barcelona
Valencia
BALEARIC IS
Cordova
Baylen
Alicante
SPAIN
Seville
Granada
Cartagena
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Cadiz
C. Trafalgar
Gibraltar (English)
Ceuta
Algiers
AFRICA

East 10° from Greenwich 15°
20°
25°
30°
35°
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
Copenhagen
Königsb.
Riga
Moscow
Borodino
Vitebsk
Smolensk
Korno
Tilsit
Vilna
Friedland
EMPIRE OF RUSSIA
Swedish Pomerania
Rep. of Danzig
KM. OF PRUSSIA
Stettin
Thorn
Berlin
G. R. DUCHY OF WARSAW
Podubin
Posen
Warsaw
Kiev
Pultowa
Dresden
Breslau
Krakow
Galicia
Prague
Bohemia
Brünn
Austerlitz
Ratisbon
EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA
Aspern
Wagram
Pressburg
Munich
Vienna
HUNGARY
Jassy
Moldavia
Innsbruck
Tyrol
Trent
Trieste
Temesvar
Venice
Wallachia
Belgrade
Bucharest
Silistria
BLACK SEA
Danube R.
Varna
ILLYRIAN PROVINCES
ADRIATIC SEA
Sophia
Ragusa
Cattaro
TURKISH EMPIRE
Constantinople
Scutari
Adrianople
Rome
KM. OF NAPLES
Naples
Brindisi
Saloniki
Otranto
Janina
IONIAN ISLANDS
Smyrna
Cosenza
Palermo
KINGDOM OF SICILY
Messina
Syracuse
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS
15°
20°
25°
30°
60°
55°
50°
45°
40°

were powerless. The English army under the Duke of Wellington slowly but surely drove the French back over the Pyrenees. Napoleon's ultimate downfall was in no small measure due to this ill-advised Peninsular War.

824. War with Austria (1809); Battle of Wagram. In April, 1809, Austria ventured to declare war once more on the "enemy

MUSIC ROOM IN THE PALACE OF COMPIÈGNE

Napoleon used the various palaces erected by the previous rulers of France. That at Compiègne, fifty miles from Paris, was built by Louis XV. The smaller harp was made, it is said, for Napoleon's heir, the "King of Rome," as his father called him. However, when Napoleon abdicated in 1814, the boy was but three years old, and was carried off to Austria by his Austrian mother, Maria Louisa. He was known by the Bonapartists as Napoleon II, but never ruled over France

of Europe," but this time she found no one to aid her. The great battle of Wagram, near Vienna (July 5–6), was perhaps not so unconditional a victory for the French as that of Austerlitz, but it forced Austria into just as humiliating a peace as that of Pressburg. Austria's object had been to destroy Napoleon's system of dependencies and "to restore to their rightful possessors all those lands belonging to them respectively before the Napoleonic usurpations." Instead of accomplishing this end, Austria was obliged to cede more territory to Napoleon and his allies, and

he went on adding to his dependencies. Consequently, in 1810, France stretched from the confines of Naples to the Baltic. One might travel from Lübeck to Rome without leaving Napoleon's realms.

825. Napoleon marries a Hapsburg Princess. Napoleon was anxious to have an heir to whom he could transmit his vast dominions. As Josephine bore him no children, he decided to divorce her, and, after considering a Russian princess, he married the Archduchess Maria Louisa, the daughter of the Austrian emperor and a grandniece of Marie Antoinette. In this way the former Corsican adventurer gained admission to one of the oldest and proudest of reigning families, the Hapsburgs. His new wife soon bore him a son, who was styled King of Rome.

VI. The Fall of Napoleon

826. Relations between Napoleon and Alexander I. Among the continental states Russia alone was entirely out of Napoleon's control. There were plenty of causes for misunderstanding between the ardent young Tsar Alexander I and Napoleon. Up to this time the agreement of Tilsit had been maintained. Napoleon was, however, secretly opposing Alexander's plans for adding the Danubian provinces and Finland to his possessions. Then the possibility of Napoleon's reëstablishing Poland as a national kingdom which might threaten Russia's interests was a constant source of apprehension to Alexander. By 1812 Napoleon believed himself to be in a condition to subdue this doubtful friend, who might at any moment become a dangerous enemy. Against the advice of his more far-sighted counselors, the emperor collected on the Russian frontier a vast army of four hundred thousand men, composed to a great extent of young conscripts and the contingents furnished by his allies.

827. Napoleon's Campaign in Russia (1812). The story of the fearful Russian campaign which followed cannot be told here in detail. Napoleon had planned to take three years to conquer Russia, but he was led on by the desire to proclaim at least one

victory before he closed the first season's campaign. The Russians simply retreated and led him far within a hostile and devastated country before they offered battle at Borodino (September 7). Napoleon won the battle, but his army was reduced to something over one hundred thousand men when he entered Moscow a week later. The town had been set on fire by the Russians before his arrival; he found his position untenable and had to retreat as winter came on. The cold, the want of food, and the harassing attacks of the people along the route made that retreat one of the most signal military tragedies on record. Napoleon regained Poland early in December with scarcely twenty thousand of the four hundred thousand with which he had started less than six months before.

828. Napoleon collects a New Army. Napoleon hastened back to Paris, where he freely misrepresented the true state of affairs, even declaring that the army was in a good condition up to the time that he turned it over to his brother-in-law in December. While the loss of men in the Russian campaign was enormous, just those few had naturally survived who would be most essential in the formation of a new army; namely, the officers. With their help Napoleon soon had a force of no less than six hundred thousand men with which to return to the attack. This contained one hundred and fifty thousand conscripts who should not have been called into service until 1814, besides older men who had been hitherto exempted.

829. Social Conditions in Prussia before 1806. By the end of February, 1813, the timid Frederick William had been induced by public sentiment in Prussia to break with his oppressor and join Russia. On March 17 he issued a famous address "To my People," in which he called upon them to assist him in the recovery of Prussian independence.

Up to the defeat of Jena, Prussia was far more backward in its social organization than France had been before 1789. The agricultural classes were serfs, who were bound to the land and compelled to work a certain part of each week for the lord without remuneration. The population was divided into strict social castes.

Moreover, no noble could buy citizen or peasant land; no citizen, noble or peasant land; no peasant, noble or citizen land.

830. Prussia undertakes Reforms. The overwhelming defeat of the Prussian army at Jena and the provisions of the Treaty of Tilsit, which reduced Prussia to territorial insignificance, forced the leaders of that old-fashioned country to consider whether its weakness was not partly due to its medieval institutions. Neither the king nor his usual advisers were ready for thoroughgoing reform, but there were some more progressive spirits, among whom Baron vom Stein and Prince Hardenberg were conspicuous, who induced the government to alter the old system.

The first step was taken in October, 1807, when a royal decree was issued which declared its purpose to be nothing less than "to remove every obstacle that has hitherto prevented the individual from attaining such a degree of prosperity as he is capable of reaching." Serfdom was abolished, and the old class system done away with, so that anyone, regardless of social rank, was legally free to purchase and hold real estate no matter to whom it had formerly belonged.

831. The Prussian *Junkers*. It is important to note that while serfs had practically disappeared in England and France hundreds of years earlier, it was not until the opening of the nineteenth century, and then under the stress of dire calamity, that Prussia sufficiently modernized herself to abolish the medieval manor and free the peasants until then bound to the soil and sold with it. But the manorial lords, the so-called *Junkers*, remained rich and influential, and have continued down to this day, with their ancient notions of kingship by the grace of God and military prowess, to exercise a fatal influence on the Prussian government. Moreover, the mass of the Prussian people seem to retain something of their old servile attitude toward their masters.

832. Origin of the Modern Prussian Army. The old army of Frederick the Great had been completely discredited, and a few days after the signing of the Treaty of Tilsit a commission for military reorganization was appointed. The object of the reformers was to introduce universal military service. Napoleon

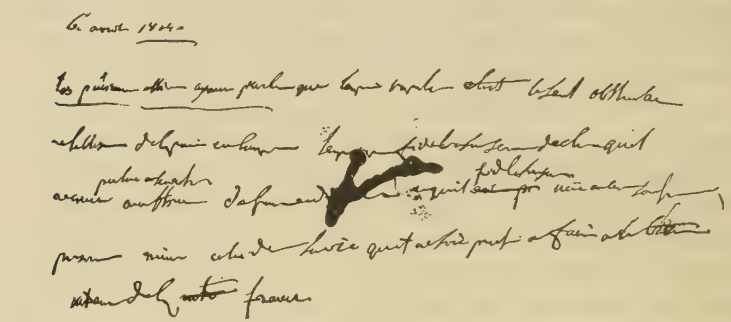
permitted Prussia to maintain only a small force of not more than forty-two thousand men, but the reformers arranged that this army should be continually recruited by new men, while those who had had some training should retire and form a reserve. In this way, in spite of Napoleon's restrictions on the size of the regular Prussian army, there were before long as many as a hundred and fifty thousand men sufficiently trained to fight when the opportunity should come. This system was later adopted by other European states and was the basis of the great armies of the Continent at the outbreak of the World War in 1914.

833. Fichte's Addresses (1807–1808). While serfdom and the old system of social classes were being abolished in Prussia attempts were being made to rouse the national spirit of the Germans and prepare them to fight against their French conquerors. A leader in this movement was the well-known philosopher Fichte. He arranged a course of public addresses in Berlin, just after the defeat at Jena, in which he told his auditors, with impressive warmth and eloquence, that the Germans were the one really superior people in the whole world. All other nations were degraded and had, he was confident, seen their best days; but the future belonged to the Germans, who would in due time, owing to their supreme natural gifts, come into their own and be recognized as the leaders of the world. The German language was, he claimed, infinitely stronger than the feeble speech of the French and Italians, borrowed from ancient Latin. Unhappily, later German writers, as we shall see, have followed Fichte's lead in cultivating the Germans' self-esteem and their contempt for every other race.

834. Battle of Leipzig (October, 1813). Napoleon had to face now not only the kings and the cabinets of Europe and the regular armies that they directed but a people who were being organized to defend their country. The campaign which followed is known in Germany as the War of Liberation. Napoleon's soldiers were, however, still triumphant for a time. He gained his last great victory, the battle of Dresden, August 26–27. Finding that the allied armies of the Russians, Prussians, and Austrians,

which had at last learned the necessity of coöperating against their powerful common enemy, were preparing to cut him off from France, he retreated early in October and was totally defeated in the tremendous "Battle of the Nations," as it has since been called, in the environs of Leipzig (October 16–19).

835. Break-up of Napoleon's Empire. As the defeated emperor crossed the Rhine with the remnants of his army the whole

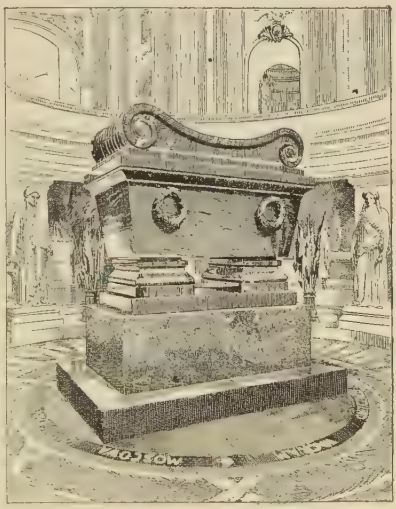


THE ABDICATION OF NAPOLEON—THE DOCUMENT IN HIS OWN HANDWRITING

fabric of his political edifice in Germany and Holland collapsed. The members of the Confederation of the Rhine joined the allies. Jerome Bonaparte fled from his kingdom of Westphalia, and the Dutch drove the French officials from Holland. During the year 1813 the Spanish, with the aid of the English under Wellington, had practically cleared their country of the French intruders.

836. Napoleon's Abdication (April, 1814). In spite of these disasters, Napoleon refused the propositions of peace made on condition that he would content himself henceforth with his dominion over France. The allies consequently marched into France, and the almost superhuman activity of the hard-pressed emperor could not prevent their occupation of Paris (March 31, 1814). Napoleon was forced to abdicate and renounce all rights to the throne for himself and his family. He was permitted to retain his title of Emperor and was granted full sovereignty over the tiny island of Elba in the Mediterranean, where he was really

a prisoner of the allies. The allies immediately reinstated the Bourbon dynasty on the throne of France. Louis XVI's brother, the count of Provence, was recalled from England, where he had been living, and was given the title of Louis XVIII.[1] The boundaries of France were fixed as they had been at the beginning of 1792. A great Congress of the victorious powers was summoned to meet at Vienna to settle the many problems of readjustment which now arose. Accordingly there gathered in November a notable assembly of rulers and statesmen, who set about to redistribute the realms Napoleon had ruled. Although the allies were at one in their hostility to Napoleon, they immediately began to disagree on how Europe should be reconstructed.



Tomb of Napoleon

Napoleon died at St. Helena in 1821. The body was brought to Paris in 1840 and placed with great military splendor in this sarcophagus of reddish-brown granite, which was hewn in Finland as a solid block, weighing sixty-seven tons. Around it in the pavement are inscribed the names of Napoleon's greatest victories, while some sixty captured banners stand beside colossal statues of victory. The whole tomb is under the gilded dome of the church of the old soldiers' hospital, known as the Invalides, which rises one hundred and sixty-one feet above it

837. Return of Napoleon. While their sessions were still in progress Napoleon, encouraged by the unpopularity of the Bourbon king and the dissensions among the powers, succeeded in escaping from his little kingdom and with twelve hundred men landed in France. With an army

[1] The son of Louis XVI had been imprisoned and maltreated by the terrorists. He died while still a boy in 1795, but nevertheless takes his place in the line of French kings as Louis XVII.

of enthusiastic followers, who joined him on the way, he reached Paris, March 1, 1815. Napoleon counted on the loyalty of the French people and trusted that the divisions between the nations would prevent a combined attack on him. But the allies quickly forgot their rivalry in the face of common danger and joined to overthrow once more "the destroyer of the world's peace."

838. Defeat of Napoleon. The Duke of Wellington assembled an army of one hundred thousand British, Germans, and Dutch in the Netherlands, and Blücher with another large army of Prussians was ready to assist him. The Austrians also had a considerable force near the Rhine. Napoleon hastily collected such an army as he could and with his old daring marched to the Belgian frontier, hoping to divide his enemies and deal with them separately. Although he managed at first to drive back the Prussians, he was overcome by Wellington's forces at Waterloo and completely routed by Blücher's troops, who arrived to assist the British general. There was now no hope for Napoleon, for the allies had combined to send indefinite numbers into the field against him. Hopelessly defeated at last, the career of the mighty conqueror had come to an end. Banished to St. Helena, a lonely island in the South Atlantic, Napoleon spent his few remaining years writing his *Memoirs*, in which he sought to justify his deeds and hand down to posterity the story of his achievements.

QUESTIONS

I. Tell something of the early life of Napoleon Bonaparte. What powers were at war with France when Bonaparte took command of the Italian army? With what success did Bonaparte meet in Italy? Describe Bonaparte's character. What were the chief sources of his power? What were Bonaparte's motives in going to Egypt? How did Bonaparte become First Consul? What is the origin of the word "consul"? Why was Bonaparte popular? What were his first measures?

II. Describe Bonaparte's second expedition to Italy and its results. Describe the general nature of the Holy Roman Empire. Had the emperors tried in previous centuries to strengthen Germany? What were the circumstances that led to the consolidation of Germany in 1803? What is meant by "secularization"? Give some examples.

III. How did Bonaparte adjust the relations of France to the Church? What did he do about the runaway nobles? What was the *Code Napoléon*? Why did Bonaparte want to be called Napoleon I?

IV. Why did Napoleon believe that he would be constantly involved in war? How did Louisiana come into the possession of the United States? What was the extent of French territory when war was renewed in 1803? What were the sources of Napoleon's dislike for England? Describe the final dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. How did Prussia become involved in war with France in 1806, and what were the results? What was the continental blockade? What was the position of the United States? What difficulties do neutral nations have during a war of maritime powers? How did Napoleon hope to make the Continent independent of English commerce?

V. What did Napoleon do for Paris? What was the result of Napoleon's attempt to add Spain to his empire? How were the French boundaries extended after the war with Austria in 1809? Why did Napoleon marry an Austrian princess?

VI. Why did Napoleon undertake his Russian expedition? What reforms were carried through in Prussia as a result of her defeat by Napoleon? Tell something of the campaign of 1813. Why is the battle of Leipzig called the "Battle of the Nations"? What was the end of Napoleon's career in Europe? What does Europe owe to Napoleon?

BOOK IX. WESTERN EUROPE, 1814–1914

CHAPTER XXXVI

EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

I. Reconstruction of Europe by the Congress of Vienna

839. Decisions of the Congress of Vienna. There are few more important chapters in the political history of Europe than the reconstruction of the map which was arranged by that impressive assembly of monarchs, princes, and statesmen who met at the international Congress of Vienna. They had no idea of establishing things as they had been before the Napoleonic period, for the reason that Austria, Russia, and Prussia all had schemes for their own advantage that interfered with so simple an arrangement.

The allies quickly agreed that Holland should become a hereditary kingdom under the House of Orange, which had long played so conspicuous a rôle in the history of the Dutch Republic (§§ 561 ff). In order that Holland might be the better able to check any new encroachments on the part of France, she was given the former Austrian Netherlands. Switzerland was declared independent, as were all the small Italian states which had existed prior to the changes made by Napoleon, except the ancient republics of Venice and Genoa, neither of which was restored. Genoa was given to the king of Sardinia; Venetia to Austria, as an indemnity for her losses in the Netherlands. Austria also received back her former territory of Milan and became, by reason of her control of northern Italy, a powerful factor in determining the policy of the whole Italian peninsula. As to Germany, no one desired to undo the great work of 1803 and restore the old anarchy. The

former members of the Rhine Confederation were bent upon maintaining the "sovereignty" which Napoleon had secured for them; consequently the allies determined that the several states of Germany should be independent, but "united in a federal union."

840. Dispute over Polish Territory and Saxony. So far all was tolerably harmonious. Nevertheless serious differences of opinion developed at the congress, which nearly brought on war among the allies themselves and encouraged Napoleon's return from Elba. These concerned the disposition of the Polish territory that Napoleon had converted into the grand duchy of Warsaw. Prussia agreed with Russia that the territory should remain a separate state under the supremacy of the Tsars. Prussia was then to be indemnified for her losses in the east by annexing the lands of the king of Saxony, who, it was argued, merited this retribution for remaining faithful to Napoleon after the rest of Germany had repudiated him.

841. Sagacity of Talleyrand. Austria and England, on the other hand, were bitterly opposed to this arrangement. They approved neither of dispossessing the king of Saxony nor of extending the Tsar's influence westward by giving him Poland. The great diplomatist Talleyrand, who represented Louis XVIII at the congress, now saw his chance. The allies had resolved to treat France as a black sheep and permit the other four great powers to arrange matters to suit themselves. But they were now hopelessly at odds, and Austria and England found France a welcome ally in their opposition to the northern powers. So in this way France, which had stood apart for the last quarter of a century, was received back into the family of nations.

842. The Compromise. A compromise was at last reached. The Tsar, Alexander, was allowed to create a kingdom of Poland out of the grand duchy of Warsaw, but only half of the possessions of the king of Saxony were ceded to Prussia. As a further indemnity to Prussia, Frederick William III was given certain districts on the left (that is, west) bank of the Rhine which had previously belonged to ecclesiastical and petty lay princes before the Treaty of Lunéville. The power of Prussia was thus increased in western

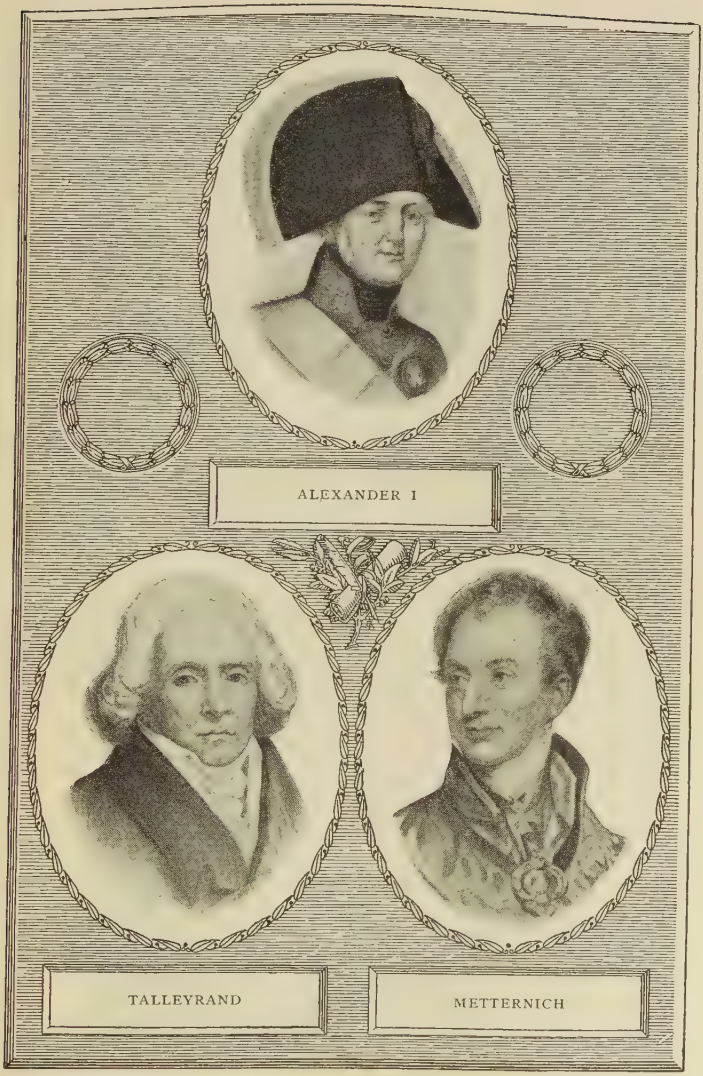
Germany. The great importance of this arrangement we shall see later when we come to trace the development of the German Empire.

843. Reactionary Policy following Congress of Vienna. Napoleon, in spite of all his despotism, was a son of the Revolution and had no sympathy with the ancient evils that it had done away with. The people of the countries that had come under his influence had learned some of the great lessons of the French Revolution. Nevertheless the restored monarchs in many of the smaller European states proceeded to reëstablish the ancient feudal abuses and to treat their subjects as if there had been no French Revolution and no such man as Napoleon.

In order to understand the period following the downfall of Napoleon we must realize that the statesmen who met together at Vienna were determined to restore peace in Europe and to promote their own national interests, which had been so impaired by Napoleon's ambitions. They therefore reinstated the monarchs whom they regarded as "legitimately" entitled to rule, and suppressed all attempts on the part of the people to gain any further measure of liberty. This they believed was the only way to bring order out of the chaos into which Europe had fallen.

844. Influence of Metternich. Austria had emerged from the disorder as the most dominant power in Europe and played for thirty years the leading rôle in international affairs. From 1815 to 1848 those who believed in keeping things as they were at any cost were able, under the leadership of her astute minister, Count Metternich, to oppose pretty successfully those who from time to time attempted to secure for the people a greater control of the government. This did not mean, of course, that no progress was made during this long period in realizing the ideals of the liberal parties in the various European states, or that one man could block the advance of nations for a generation.

845. The Holy Alliance. The Tsar, Alexander I, had become very religious and invited the pious king of Prussia and the emperor of Austria to join a brotherhood of monarchs who were to regard themselves as "delegates of Providence to govern three branches of the same family." Other European powers were to



IMPORTANT MEMBERS OF THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

The Congress of Vienna

be invited cordially and affectionately to join this "Holy Alliance." This was not, as later supposed, a conspiracy of despotic monarchs to repress all liberal movements, but it was so represented by newspapers and reformers. Accordingly Metternich's policy of repression was often ascribed to the Holy Alliance.

II. France, 1814–1830

846. The Restoration of the Bourbons in France. The French had aroused themselves in 1793–1794 to repel the foreign powers Austria and Prussia, who threatened to bring back the old régime. Twenty years later, in 1814, when the allies entered Paris, there was no danger of the reëstablishment of the old wrongs. It is true that the Bourbon line of kings was restored, but France had always been monarchical at heart. It was only the ill-advised conduct of Louis XVI that had led to his deposition and the founding of a republic, which Napoleon had easily converted into a monarchy. The new king, Louis XVIII, made no effort to destroy the great achievements of the Revolution. He granted the nation a constitution, called the Charter, which remained in force, slightly changed in 1830, until 1848.

847. The Charter of 1814. The Charter of 1814 furnishes us with a statement of the permanent results of the Revolution and measures the distance that separates this time from that of Louis XVI. Almost all the great reforms proclaimed by the first Declaration of the Rights of Man (§ 755) are guaranteed. The laws are to be made by the king in coöperation with a parliament, consisting of a House of Peers and of a Chamber of Deputies elected by the nation; the latter may impeach the king's ministers.

848. Charles X deposed in 1830. In 1824 Louis XVIII died and was succeeded by his brother, the count of Artois, who took the title of Charles X. Under his rule the reactionary policy of the government became more pronounced. A bill was passed voting the nobility a large sum of money for the property they had lost during the Revolution. Then, by royal decrees, a censorship of the press was established, the suffrage was limited to a

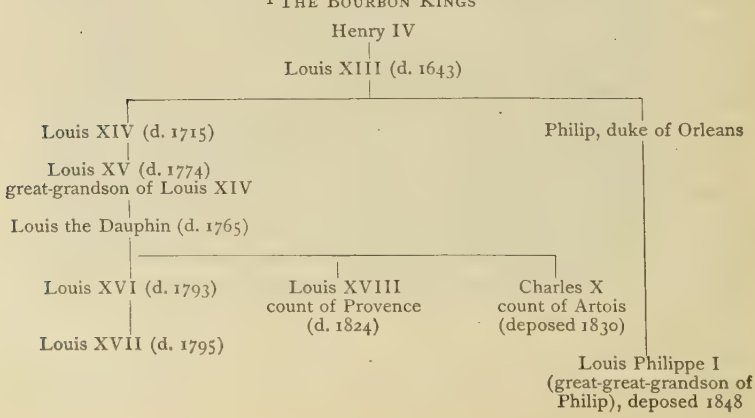
small, wealthy class, and only the king was to initiate laws. These unjust and tyrannical measures led to the dethronement of the unpopular king by a revolution in Paris in 1830. Louis Philippe, the descendant of Henry IV through the younger, or Orleans, branch of the Bourbon family, was put upon the throne.[1]

III. Germany and Metternich

849. Reduced Number of States in Germany. The Napoleonic occupation of Germany left permanent results. The consolidation of territory that followed the cession of the west bank of the Rhine to France had, as has been explained, done away with the ecclesiastical states, the territories of knights, and most of the free towns. Only thirty-eight German states, including four towns, were left when the Congress of Vienna took up the question of forming a confederation to replace the defunct Holy Roman Empire.

850. Growing Importance of Prussia. Prussia was greatly strengthened by the annexation of a part of Saxony and of the Rhine provinces. Moreover, the reforms carried out in Prussia after the battle of Jena by the distinguished minister Stein and his successor, Hardenberg, had done for Prussia somewhat the same thing that the first National Assembly had done for France. The abolition of the feudal social castes and the liberation of the serfs

[1] The Bourbon Kings



made the economic development of the country possible. The reorganization of the whole military system prepared the way for Prussia's great victories in 1866 and 1870, which led to the formation of a new German empire under her headship.

851. German Confederation a Union of Rulers. The German Confederation established by the Congress of Vienna was not a union of the various *countries* involved, but of "the Sovereign Princes and Free Towns of Germany," including the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia for such of their possessions as were formerly included in the German empire, the king of Denmark for Holstein, and the king of the Netherlands for the grand duchy of Luxemburg. The union thus included two sovereigns who were out-and-out foreigners, and did not comprise all the possessions of its two most important members.[1]

The diet which met at Frankfort was composed not of representatives of the *people*, but of the *rulers* who were members of the confederation. The members reserved to themselves the right of forming alliances of all kinds, but pledged themselves to make no agreement endangering the safety of the union or of any of its members, nor to make war upon any member of the confederation on any pretense whatsoever. The constitution could not be amended without the approval of *all* the governments concerned. In spite of its obvious weaknesses the confederation of 1815 lasted for half a century until Prussia finally expelled Austria from the union by arms and incorporated the rest of Germany in the German Empire.

852. Disappointment of the Liberals. The liberals in Germany were sadly disappointed that the Congress of Vienna had failed to weld Germany into a modern national state; they were also troubled because the king of Prussia broke his promise to give Prussia a constitution. But Frederick William III was a weak monarch and had lived through such a period of revolutionary disorder that he was quite willing to listen to the advice of the Austrian chief minister Metternich, who hated progress in any

[1] Observe the boundary of the German Confederation as indicated on the map, p. 476.

form and who had become the leader of those who fought all tendencies toward democracy and constitutional government.

853. Liberal Thought in Germany suppressed. The attacks upon the freedom of the press, and especially the interference with the liberty of teaching in the universities, which were already beginning to pride themselves on their scholarship and science, scandalized such progressive spirits as Germany possessed. Yet no successful protest was raised, and Germany as a whole acquiesced for a generation in Metternich's system of discouraging reform of all kinds.

854. The Southern German States receive Constitutions (1818–1820). Nevertheless, important progress was made in southern Germany. As early as 1818 the king of Bavaria granted his people a constitution, in which he stated their rights and admitted them to a share in the government by establishing a parliament. His example was followed within two years by the rulers of Baden, Würtemberg, and Hesse.

IV. Revolutionary Tendencies in Italy and Spain, 1820–1821; Latin-America

855. Italy "a Geographical Expression" in 1820. Italy was at this time what Metternich called only "a geographical expression"; it had no political unity whatever. Lombardy and Venetia, in the northern part, were in the hands of Austria, and Parma, Modena, and Tuscany belonged to members of the Austrian family. In the south the considerable kingdom of the Two Sicilies was ruled over by a branch of the Spanish Bourbons, while the Papal States cut through the center of the peninsula northward to the Po. There seemed to be no hope of making Italy into a united nation.

856. Revolutionary Movements in Italy (1820–1821). The downfall of Napoleon left Italy seemingly in a worse state than that in which he had found it. The hold of Austria was strengthened by her acquisition of Venice. The petty despots of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany, reseated on their thrones by the Congress

of Vienna, hastened to sweep away the reforms which Napoleon had introduced and to reëstablish all the abuses of the old régime. The lesser Italian princes, moreover, showed themselves to be heartily in sympathy with the hated Austria. Popular discontent spread throughout the peninsula and led to the formation of numerous secret societies, which assumed strange names, practiced mysterious rites, and plotted darkly in the name of Italian liberty and independence. By far the most noted of these associations was that of the *Carbonari*; that is, charcoal burners. Its objects were individual liberty, constitutional government, and national independence and unity. These it undertook to promote by agitation, by conspiracy, and, if necessary, by revolution.

Attempts were made by the Neapolitans and by the people of the kingdom of Sardinia, and later by other Italian states, to force their rulers to grant them constitutions. The alert Metternich, who had from time to time called congresses of the European powers, obtained their consent to dispatch Austrian troops to check the development of "revolt and crime." So all liberal movements in Italy were suppressed for the time being.

857. Hopeful Signs. Yet there were two hopeful signs. England protested as early as 1820 against Metternich's theory of interfering in the domestic affairs of other independent states in order to prevent reforms of which he disapproved, and France, on the accession of Louis Philippe in 1830, emphatically repudiated the doctrine of intervention. A second and far more important indication of progress was the increasing conviction on the part of the Italians that their country ought to be a single nation and not, as hitherto, a group of small independent states under foreign influence.

858. Creation of the Kingdom of Greece (1821). Two events, at least, during the period of Metternich's influence served to encourage the liberals of Europe. In 1821 the inhabitants of Greece had revolted against the oppressive government of the Turks. The Turkish government set to work to suppress the revolt by atrocious massacres. It is said that twenty thousand of the inhabitants of the island of Chios were slaughtered. The

Greeks, however, succeeded in arousing the sympathy of western Europe, and held out until England, Russia, and France intervened and forced the Sultan to recognize the independence of Greece in 1829.

859. Belgium becomes an Independent Kingdom in 1831. Another little kingdom was added to the European states by the revolt of the former Austrian Netherlands from the king of Holland, to whom they had been assigned by the Congress of Vienna. The southern Netherlands were still as different from the northern as they had been in the time of William the Silent (§ 561). Holland was Protestant and German, while the southern provinces, to whom the union had always been distasteful, were Catholic and akin to the French in their sympathies. Encouraged by the revolution at Paris in 1830, the people of Brussels rose in revolt against their Dutch king and forced his troops to leave the city. Through the influence of England and France the European powers agreed to recognize the independence of the Belgians, who established a kingdom and introduced an excellent constitution providing for a limited monarchy modeled upon that of England. The neutrality of Belgium was solemnly guaranteed by the European powers, but this did not prevent Germany's violating Belgian territory and making it a battle ground in 1914.

860. Revolution in Spain. In Spain Ferdinand VII, who was restored to power by the allies, abolished completely all the reforms that Napoleon had introduced. He annulled the constitution which had been drawn up in 1812, and restored the Inquisition, feudal privileges, and religious orders. Books and newspapers were strictly censored, free speech was repressed, and great numbers of liberals were imprisoned or executed.

861. Spanish-American Colonies. A large part of the Spanish empire consisted of the colonies which she had established in America. These included Mexico (and the regions to the northwest, later acquired by the United States), Central America, and all of South America except Brazil, which belonged to Portugal. The mother country had from the first monopolized the trade of her colonies. This selfish policy, although later relaxed, caused

great discontent among the colonists. When Napoleon placed his brother on the throne of Spain the Latin-Americans[1] saw their commerce still further threatened. Encouraged by the success of the North American colonies in gaining their independence from England, the Spanish-Americans revolted.

862. Revolt of the Spanish Colonies (1810–1825). Beginning in 1810, Mexico, New Granada (now Colombia), Venezuela, Peru, Buenos Aires, and Chile, while they still professed to be loyal to Ferdinand VII, took their government into their own hands, drove out the former Spanish agents, and finally rejected Spanish rule altogether. At first the revolts were put down with great cruelty, but in 1817, under the leadership of Bolivar, Venezuela won its independence, and during the following five years the Spaniards lost New Granada, Peru, Ecuador, Chile, Mexico, and lastly (1825) Upper Peru, which was renamed Bolivia after its liberator.

863. Revolution in Spain (1820). Ever since his restoration Ferdinand VII had been sending thousands of men to die of fever and wounds in the vain attempt to subdue the insurgents. At last, in January, 1820, the soldiers who were waiting in Cadiz to be sent to America, well aware of the sufferings of the regiments which had preceded them, were easily aroused to revolt. The revolution spread to Madrid, where a mob surrounded the palace (March 9) and forced the king to take the oath to the constitution of 1812 (§ 860).

864. Interference of France in Spain. The representatives of the Great Powers—Russia, Austria, Prussia, France, and England—met at Verona in 1822 to discuss what should be done about the Spanish crisis. England refused to interfere in any way, for it was not to her advantage to assist Ferdinand to regain his power and perhaps recover the Spanish-American colonies. She did not wish to lose the profitable trade which was opened up to her by the new South American states. It was finally left to Louis XVIII to send an army across the Pyrenees. The French

[1] South and Central America and Mexico are often spoken of as Latin-America, because their inhabitants speak Spanish or Portuguese, which are languages derived from Latin.

commander easily defeated the revolutionists and placed Ferdinand in a position to stamp out his enemies. He did this in such a ferocious and bloodthirsty manner that his French allies were heartily ashamed of him.

865. European Policies and the Monroe Doctrine. While France was helping to restore absolutism in Spain the Spanish colonies, as we have seen, were rapidly winning their independence, encouraged by the United States and England.

The threats of Metternich and his friends to help Spain restore her control over her colonies led President Monroe, in his message to Congress, December, 1823, to call attention to the dangers of intervention as practiced by the European alliance of great powers, and clearly state what has since become famous as the "Monroe Doctrine"—namely, that the United States would consider any attempt on the part of the European allies to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States and as an unfriendly act.

QUESTIONS

I. Upon what points did the Congress of Vienna easily agree? Upon what two points was there serious discord?

II. Who were the Bourbons, and how did they come to reign both in France and in Spain? What was the Charter of 1814? Contrast Charles X with Louis XVIII.

III. What were the chief results of the Napoleonic period in Germany? How was Prussia strengthened as a result of Napoleon's intervention in Germany? Describe the German Confederation of 1815. Who was Metternich, and what were his views? Do you think that the government ought to prevent criticism of its policy?

IV. Of what states was Italy composed after 1815? What were the chief obstacles in the way of a united Italy? How did the Pope come to be the ruler of an Italian state? Explain why Metternich was able to oppose successfully the tendencies toward revolution. What two new kingdoms were added to the map between 1815 and 1848? What do you understand by neutrality? What colonies did Spain hold in America? What caused the Spanish colonies to revolt from the mother country? What were the circumstances which led to the formulation of the "Monroe Doctrine."

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

I. The New Age of Machinery

866. A Revolution that changed the Life of Everyone. In the preceding chapters we have reviewed the startling changes and reforms introduced by the leaders of the French Revolution and by Napoleon Bonaparte, and the reconstruction of Europe at the Congress of Vienna. These were mainly the work of statesmen, warriors, and diplomats. But a still more fundamental revolution than that which has been described had begun in England before the meeting of the Estates General.

In studying the past we sometimes make the mistake of thinking that the great mass of the people were taking part in the various wars and congresses. We need only recollect, however, that even during the recent World War the everyday life of the great majority of people in the United States who did not participate directly or indirectly in the conflict went on much as usual. So it must have been in the past. While statesmen discussed the distribution of territories and thrones almost everyone went about his work almost unconscious of the changes that were taking place. Whether Polish territory went to Prussia or Russia, or a Bourbon king sat on the throne of France or not, the laborious life of the farmer and workman remained much the same.

We shall now turn our attention to a revolution which *did* alter the life of everyone. This revolution was the work of scientific men and patient inventors who set about to improve man's ways of living. These men never stirred an assembly by their fiery denunciation of evils, or led an army to victory, or conducted a clever diplomatic negotiation. On the contrary, their

attention was concentrated upon the homely operations of every-day life—the housewife drawing out her thread with a distaff or spinning wheel, the slow work of the weaver at his primitive loom, the miner struggling against the water which threatened to flood his mine.

867. The World transformed by Machinery. Most of us accept the world in which we live—that is, the clothes we wear, our modern houses, trains, steamships, skyscrapers, asphalt streets, telephones, automobiles—as if it had always existed. We do not realize the countless discoveries, inventions, and improvements which had to be made in order to transform the conditions of the eighteenth century into our modern world (Chapter XXXII).

Distaff and Spindle

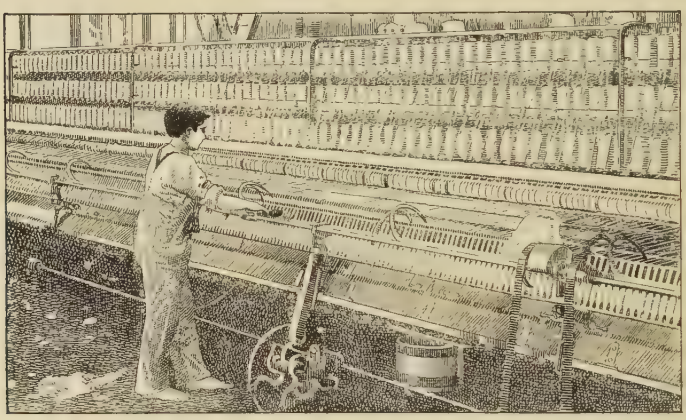
Up to that time the people of western Europe for the most part continued to till their fields, weave their cloth, and saw and plane their boards by hand, much as the ancient Egyptians had done. Merchandise was still transported in slow, lumbering carts, and letters were as long in passing from London to Paris as in the reign of Constantine. Suddenly, however, a series of ingenious devices were invented, which in a few generations eclipsed the achievements of ages and revolutionized every branch of business. This change is known as the *Industrial Revolution*, and its most important factor is the introduction of machinery. The power and tireless energy of the machine was substituted for the human hand; moreover, it was also no longer necessary for the horse and the ox to drag persons or goods slowly from place to place. The amount of work which could be accomplished in the world by these new slaves of iron was indefinitely increased. The modern

era with its opportunity for endless improvement had begun. Let us examine some of the ways in which this came about.

868. Improvements in Spinning and Weaving. If one walks through a department store he may see hundreds of yards of cotton goods, silks, woolens, and velvets of marvelous fineness and beauty neatly piled on the shelves. None of this material has been made by hand, but has been skillfully and rapidly manufactured by machinery. The revolution in manufacture which has taken place in the last hundred and fifty years is excellently illustrated by the improvement in making woven fabrics. In order to produce cloth one must first *spin* (that is, twist) the wool, cotton, or flax into thread; then by means of a loom the thread can be *woven* into a fabric. If we examine a handkerchief or a piece of our clothing carefully we can see how skillfully the many threads are interlaced. A simple way of spinning thread had been in use for thousands of years, but it was possible for a person to make only a single thread at a time. This method was so slow that the weavers could not get all the thread they needed. There was great demand, therefore, for a means of spinning which would supply thread as fast as the weavers could use it. By 1767 James Hargreaves, an English spinner, invented what was called a spinning jenny, which enabled a workman, by turning a wheel, to spin eight or ten threads at once and thus do the work of eight or ten spinners.[1] A year later a barber, Richard Arkwright, patented a device operated by water power for drawing out thread by means of rollers. Before the end of the eighteenth century improved machines spinning two hundred threads simultaneously had been invented, and as they were driven by power and required only one or two watchers, the hand workers could not compete with them. Such inventions as these produced the modern factory system.

[1] The hand spinner had bunches of wool, which had been combed into loose curls, on the end of a stick, or distaff. She pulled and twisted this with her fingers into a yarn, which she wound on the spindle. By whirling the spindle around she could help twist. The spinning wheel was invented to give a better twist to the spindle. It had become common in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and was still used by our great-grandmothers. By means of the spinning wheel it was possible in some cases for one person to make two threads, one in one hand and a second in the other.

869. The Power Loom and Cotton Gin. The enormous output of thread and yarn on these new machines made the weavers dissatisfied with the clumsy old hand loom, which could not now take care of the thread as fast as it was produced. At length, in 1784, Dr. Cartwright, a clergyman of Kent, patented a new loom, run by water power, which threw the shuttle and shifted the weft for itself. This machine was steadily improved



SPINNING MULE

The spinning mule required only one person to operate a long row of spindles and did the work of many hand-spinners

during the nineteenth century until today a single machine operated by one workman can do as much weaving in a day as two hundred weavers could do with old-fashioned hand looms. The accompanying cut gives some idea of a modern spinning machine.

Other inventions followed. The time required for bleaching was reduced from several months to a few days by the use of acids, instead of relying principally upon the sunlight. In 1792 Eli Whitney, in the United States, invented a power "gin," which enabled one man to take the seeds out of over a thousand pounds of cotton a day instead of five or six pounds, which had been the limit for the hand worker.

870. Mass Production. The effect of these inventions in increasing the amount of cloth manufactured was astonishing. In 1764 England imported only about four million pounds of raw cotton, but by 1841 she was using nearly five hundred million pounds annually.

II. The Steam Engine

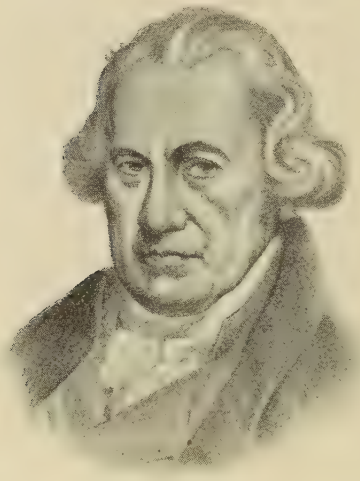
871. Demand for Iron, Steel, and Motive Power. The new inventions greatly increased the demand for iron and steel, for it was necessary to have a strong and durable material out of which machinery could be made. Moreover, some adequate power had to be found to run the new machines. Windmills were common, and waterfalls and streams had long been used to turn water wheels, but the wind was uncertain and the streams were often low. By the invention of steam engines these difficulties could be overcome, and the mills need no longer, as formerly, be located near running water. The earliest engines were power pumps which raised water into a high reservoir so that it could fall with force on a water wheel. Pumps were also used to drain the water out of mines.

While new methods of spinning and weaving were being introduced other inventors were finding better ways of melting and forging iron, and still others were improving the crude steam engines then in use. New processes for reducing iron from the ore were discovered. Coal began to be used instead of charcoal for softening the metal, and the old-fashioned bellows were replaced by great blast furnaces. Steam hammers were invented, weighing seven hundred and fifty pounds and striking three hundred blows a minute, to beat the iron into shape.

872. Watt's Steam Engine. James Watt was first able to make the steam engine a practical device for furnishing power to the new machines. Watt did not, however, *invent* the steam engine, as has been commonly supposed. As an instrument-maker in Glasgow, he was called upon (about 1760) to repair the model of a steam engine invented sixty years earlier by an ingenious mechanic named Newcomen. Watt hit upon a number of

important improvements and devised a scheme for making the engine turn the wheels of a machine attached to it. In 1785 the steam engine was first applied to spinning machinery, and by the end of the century the new engines were becoming as common as the old wind and water mills.

873. The Industrial Revolution in France. England was the first country to develop the modern use of machinery for manufacturing. It was not until after the establishment of peace in 1815 that the Industrial Revolution really began in France. At that time there was only one small steam engine employed in French industry—at a cotton factory in Alsace; but by 1847 France had nearly five thousand steam engines, with a capacity of sixty thousand horse power, and many important manufacturing centers had grown up. Paris alone had three hundred and forty-two thousand working people, other cities had their great factories, and whole quarters, peopled exclusively by factory laborers, grew up in manufacturing centers.



James Watt

874. The Age of Steam. While the steam engine was first used in factories to increase manufacture, it soon revolutionized navigation and transportation. We shall see in a later chapter how the steamboat and the steam locomotive made it possible for men to get from place to place in a much shorter time than was required by the stagecoach or the sailing vessel. Moreover, the manufactured goods which were now produced in such large quantities by the new power machines could be sent rapidly all over the world. Thus both commerce and business were enormously

increased. For a century or more steam was used as a motive power. But now steam has to some extent been replaced by gasoline and by electricity, for men have learned how to utilize an electric current to drive great power plants, to run trolleys, and to send messages around the world.

III. Capitalism and the Factory System

875. The "Domestic" System of Industry. Having seen how machinery was introduced in England in the latter part of the eighteenth century and how steam came to be utilized as a motive power, we have now to consider the important results of these inventions in changing the conditions under which people lived and worked. Up to this time "manufacture" still meant, as it did in the original Latin (*manu facere*), "to make by hand." Artisans carried on trades with their own tools in their own homes or in small shops, as the cobbler does today. Instead of working with hundreds of others in great factories and being entirely dependent upon his wages, a workman, in England at least, was often able to give some attention to a small garden plot, from which he derived a part of his support. This old method of manufacture is known as the domestic system. The introduction of machinery changed this. Hand laborers were no longer able to compete with the swift and tireless machines and found their work growing more and more unprofitable. Large factories sprang up, and the workers now realized that they had to leave their pleasant surroundings and live near their work; long rows of houses, without gardens or even grassplots, were hastily built around the factory buildings, and thus the ugly tenement districts of our cities came into existence.

876. The Capitalist and the Workingman. There grew up then, as the result of this great revolution in the methods of manufacturing, two new social classes. There were, on the one hand, the capitalists, who owned the buildings and the machinery and who had the money necessary to run the business and, on the other, the workmen whom they hired to operate the machines.

The workingman became dependent upon the few who were rich enough to set up factories. He could no longer earn a livelihood in the old way by conducting a small shop of his own, but must seek employment from the capitalist. As long as there were plenty of workers the business man could fix any hours and pay what he wished. The question of how much of the profits shall go to the business man or capitalist and how much shall be given to the workmen is still the most vital question in the problem of the relation of labor and capital.

877. Women and Children in the Factories. The destruction of the domestic system of industry had also a revolutionary effect upon the work and the lives of women and children. Before the invention of the steam engine, when the simple machines were worked by hand, children could be employed only in some of the minor processes, such as preparing the cotton for spinning. But in the modern factory, labor was largely confined to watching machines, piecing broken threads, and working levers, so that both women and children could be utilized as effectively as men, and much more cheaply.

This tended greatly to increase the number employed in the factories. Under the old system of domestic industry the tasks of the women were varied and performed at home, whereas under the new system they must flock to the factory at the call of the whistle and labor monotonously at a speed set by the foreman. This led to many grave abuses which, as we shall see, the State has been called upon to remedy from time to time by factory legislation. Although women and children have been saved from some of the worst hardships, a great deal still remains to be done.

878. The Capitalists oppose Government Interference. The capitalists and business classes maintained that the government should not attempt to regulate the prices of goods or their quality. Neither should it interfere with the employer and his workmen, except to protect both from violence; it should not fix the hours of work or the conditions in the factories. Prices, they maintained,

would be kept down by competition among the manufacturers, and wages would be fixed by the supply and demand. Everyone should have the greatest freedom to do what he was able to do. If he was a person of ability he would prosper; if he had no special ability he could only hope to get the wages that the employer found it advantageous to pay him.

879. Sad Results of the Industrial Revolution. The chief trouble with this theory was that it did not work well in practice. On the contrary, the great manufacturing cities, instead of being filled with happy and prosperous people, became the homes of a small number of capitalists, who had grown rich as the owners and directors of the factories, and multitudes of poor working people with no other resources than their wages, which were often not enough to keep their families from starvation. Little children under nine years of age, working from twelve to fifteen hours a day, and women forced to leave their homes to tend the machines in the factories were now replacing the men workers. After their long day's work they returned to miserable tenements which were the only lodgings they could afford.

880. Laws to Protect Workingmen. After the close of the Napoleonic wars, as things got worse rather than better, there were increasing signs of discontent in England. This led to various attempts to improve matters. There were those who hoped to secure reforms by extending the right to vote, in order that the working classes might be represented in Parliament and so have laws passed to remedy the worst evils at least. In this movement some of the wealthier class often joined, but the working people were naturally chiefly interested, and they embodied their ideas of reform in a great "people's charter," which will be described later (§ 954).

881. Origin of Trade-unions. In addition to this attempt to secure reform through the government, the workingmen formed unions of their own in the various trades and industries, in order to protect themselves by dealing in a body with their employers. The trade-union movement began in the early part of the nineteenth

century.[1] At first the formation of unions was forbidden by English law. Men were sentenced to imprisonment or deportation as convicts if they joined such "combinations," or unions, to raise their wages. In 1824 Parliament repealed this harsh law, and trade-unions increased rapidly. They were hampered, however, by various restrictions, and even now, although they have spread widely all over the world, people are by no means agreed as to whether workingmen's unions are the best way of improving the conditions of the laboring classes.

Another theory for permanently bettering the situation of the working people which developed was *socialism*. As socialism has played an important rôle in the history of Europe during the past fifty years, we must stop to examine the meaning of this word.

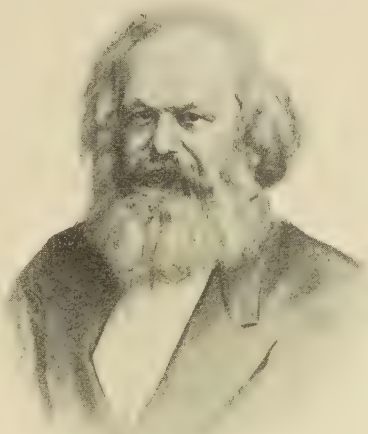
IV. The Rise of Socialism

882. The Social Ownership of the Means of Production. Socialists hold that "the means of production" should belong to society and not be held as the private property of individuals. "The means of production" is a very vague phrase and might include farms and gardens as well as tools; but when the socialist uses it he is generally thinking of the *machines* which the Industrial Revolution has brought into the world, and the factories and mines which house and keep them going, as well as the railroads and steamships which carry their goods. In short, the main idea of the socialists is that the great industries which have arisen as a result of the Industrial Revolution should not be left in private hands. They claim that it is not right for the capitalists to own the mills upon which the workingman must depend for his living; that the attempt of labor unions to get higher wages does not offer more than a temporary relief, since the *system* is wrong which permits the wealthy to have such a control over the poor. The person who works for wages, say the socialists, is not free;

[1] The craft guilds described in a previous chapter (§§ 413, 700) somewhat resembled modern labor unions, but they included both capitalists and laborers. Our labor unions did not grow out of the medieval guilds, but were organized to meet conditions that resulted from the Industrial Revolution.

he is a "wage slave" of his employer. To remedy this the socialist would turn over the great industries of the capitalists to national, state, or local ownership, so that all shall have a share in the profits. This ideal state of society, which, they say, is sure to come in the future, they call the Coöperative Commonwealth.

The first socialists relied on the kind hearts of the capitalists to bring the change, once the situation was made clear. Modern socialists, however, do not think that the rich will ever, from pure unselfishness, give up their control over industries. So they turn to working people only, and call upon them to reform industry in the face of opposition of the capitalists. They claim that wealth is produced by labor, for which capital but furnishes the opportunity, and that labor is justified in taking what it produces.[1]



Karl Marx

883. Karl Marx. The great teacher of this modern doctrine of socialism was Karl Marx, a German writer who lived most of his life in London. He was a learned man, trained in philosophy and political economy, and he came to the conclusion from a study of history that just as the capitalists[2] had replaced feudal nobles, so the working class would replace the capitalists in the future. By the working class he meant those who depend upon their work for a living. The introduction of the factory system had reduced the vast majority of artisans to a position in which the capitalist was able to dictate the conditions upon which this work

[1] This does not mean that socialists would divide up all private property. Socialists claim only that there shall be no unearned wealth in private hands controlling, as now, the industries of the country. Brain workers are also "workers."

[2] The French term *bourgeoisie* is often used by socialists for this class.

should be done. Marx, in an eloquent appeal to them in 1847,[1] called upon the members of this "proletariat," "who have nothing to lose but their chains," to rise and seize the means of production themselves. His appeal had no effect at the time, but it has been the hope of the socialists ever since.

884. Socialism and Democracy. Modern, or "Marxian," socialism is therefore a movement of the working class. As such, it must be viewed as part of the history of democracy. It is never satisfied with partial reforms so long as the conditions remain which make possible the control of the work of one man by another for the latter's benefit. So it insists that the workers shall keep one aim clearly in mind and not be drawn into other political parties until the Coöperative Commonwealth is gained.

There is one other important element in socialism. It is international. It regards the cause of workers in different countries as a common cause against a common oppressor—capitalism. In this way socialism was a force for peace between nations until the war of 1914.

QUESTIONS

I. What do you understand by the "Industrial Revolution"? What is spinning? weaving? Give some account of the way in which our modern way of spinning and weaving by machinery grew up.

II. What conditions were necessary for the development of modern machinery? Do you understand just what makes a steam engine run? When did steam engines begin to be used in factories?

III. What was the "domestic" system of industry? What is the principle of the factory system? Give all the results you can of the introduction of machinery and the growth of factories. What do you understand by "capital"? Contrast the theories of the capitalist with those of the factory hand. Why were trade-unions formed? Why do some business men oppose them?

IV. Describe the theories of the socialists of the first half of the nineteenth century. Why do modern socialists regard these theories as impracticable? Who was Karl Marx? What advantages do the socialists claim would come if our present system were abolished?

[1] The *Communist Manifesto*, written jointly with Frederick Engels. Marx used the word "communism" to distinguish his plan from the socialism of the "dreamers" who looked to capitalists to help.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848 AND THEIR RESULTS

I. The Second Republic and Second Empire in France

885. General Revolutionary Movement in Europe in 1848. In 1848 the gathering discontent and the demand for reform suddenly showed their full strength and extent; as if obeying a preconcerted signal, the liberal parties in France, Italy, Germany, and Austria, during the early months of 1848, gained control of the government and proceeded to carry out their program of reform in the same thoroughgoing way in which the National Assembly in France had done its work in 1789. The general movement affected almost every state in Europe, but the course of events in France, and in that part of central Europe which had so long been dominated by Metternich and Austria, merits especial attention.

886. Unpopularity of Louis Philippe. In France there were various causes of discontent with the government of Louis Philippe. The liberals maintained that the king had too much power and demanded that every Frenchman should have the right to vote so soon as he reached maturity. As Louis Philippe grew older he not only opposed reforms himself but also did all he could to keep the parliament and the newspapers from advocating any changes which the progressive parties demanded. Nevertheless, the strength of the Republicans gradually increased. They found allies in the new group of socialistic writers who desired a fundamental reorganization of the State.

887. The Second Republic Proclaimed. On February 24, 1848, a mob invaded the Assembly, as in the time of the Reign of Terror, crying, "Down with the Bourbons, old and new!

Long live the Republic!" The king abdicated, and a provisional government was established. The first decree of this body, reëstablishing a republic, was solemnly proclaimed on the former site of the Bastille, February 27. Thus the second French Republic came into existence.

THE CONFLICT BETWEEN WORKINGMEN AND THE GOVERNMENT TROOPS IN PARIS, JUNE, 1848

888. The "Red Republic." The new provisional government was scarcely in session before it was threatened by the "red republic," whose representatives, the Social Democrats, desired to put the laboring classes in control of the government and to let them conduct it in their own interests, and wished to substitute the red flag[1] for the national colors. The government went so far as to concede the so-called "right to labor"; that is, the duty of the government to see that everyone had work. Great numbers of the unemployed were given useless work by the Assembly.

889. Insurrection in Paris (June, 1848). A National Assembly had been convoked, whose members were elected by the votes of all Frenchmen above the age of twenty-one. Since the majority of Frenchmen were country people who were not interested in the victims of the factory system, the result of the election was an overwhelming defeat for the Social Democrats. Their leaders then tried to overthrow the new Assembly on the pretext that it did not represent the people; but the national guard

[1] Socialists use red as a symbol of the common blood of the brotherhood of man.

frustrated the attempt. The number of men now employed on the national works had reached one hundred and seventeen thousand, each of whom received two francs a day in return for either useless labor or mere idleness. No serious attempt was made to make the experiment pay, and it was abolished in June. The result was a terrific battle in the streets of Paris for three days, June 23–25, and over ten thousand persons were killed —more than had perished in the whole Reign of Terror.

NAPOLEON III

890. Establishment of the Second Empire. This desperate outbreak of the forces of revolution resulted in a general conviction that a strong hand was essential to the maintenance of peace. The new constitution decreed that the president of the Republic should be chosen by the people at large. Their choice fell upon the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, Louis Napoleon, who had already made two futile attempts to make himself the ruler of France.[1] Before the expiration of his four years' term he resorted, like Napoleon I, to a *coup d'état* (December 2, 1851) and set up a new government. He next obtained, by a general vote, the

[1] Few monarchs of Europe have had such a romantic career as this nephew of Napoleon I. An exile, a conspirator against Louis Philippe, prisoner of state, escaping, to return and to be elected president of the Second Republic, he was one of the shrewdest politicians of the nineteenth century. As emperor he gratified French pride with beautiful buildings and other showy public works, but the "Napoleonic legend" of glory kept involving him in foreign wars, which mostly turned out badly for France and finally led to his own overthrow (§§ 923, 942).

consent of the people to his remaining president for ten years. A year later, the dream of his life was at last realized—the Second Empire was established, and as Napoleon III he became "Emperor of the French by the grace of God and the will of the people."

II. The Revolution of 1848 in Austria, Italy, and Germany

891. Austria's Commanding Position. The overthrow of Louis Philippe encouraged the opponents of Metternich in Germany, Austria, and Italy to attempt to make an end of his system at once and forever. In view of the important part that Austria had played in central Europe since the fall of Napoleon I, it was inevitable that she should appear the chief barrier to the attainment of national unity and liberal government in Italy and Germany. As ruler of Lombardy and Venetia she practically controlled Italy, and as presiding member of the German Confederation she had been able to keep even Prussia in line. Moreover, the territories of the Hapsburgs were inhabited by such a mixture of peoples that to grant national independence would mean complete disruption of the Empire.

892. Overthrow of Metternich (March, 1848). On March 13 the populace of Vienna rose in revolt against the government. Metternich fled, and all his efforts, for thirty years, to suppress reform appeared to have come to naught. Before the end of the month the helpless Austrian emperor had given his permission to the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia to draw up constitutions for themselves granting equality of all classes in the matter of taxation, religious freedom, and liberty of the press, and providing that each country should have a parliament of its own, which should meet annually.

893. Revolution in Italy. Italy naturally took this favorable opportunity to revolt against the hated "Germans." Immediately on the news of Metternich's fall the Milanese expelled the Austrian troops from their city, and soon Austria was forced to evacuate a great part of Lombardy. The Venetians followed the

lead of Milan and set up the republic of St. Mark. By this time a great part of Italy was in revolt. Constitutions were granted to Naples, Rome, Tuscany, and Piedmont by their rulers. Charles Albert, the king of Sardinia, was forced by public opinion to assume the leadership in the attempt to expel Austria from Italy.

894. Reform Movement in Germany. The king of Prussia determined to take the lead in Germany. He agreed to summon an assembly to draw up a constitution for Prussia. Moreover, a great National Assembly was convoked at Frankfort to draft a constitution for Germany at large.

895. Defeat of the Italians (July, 1848). For the moment Austria's chief danger lay in Italy. The Italians were, however, unable to drive the Austrian army out of Italy. Charles Albert found himself, with the exception of a few volunteers, almost unsupported by the other Italian states, which, for one reason or another, grew indifferent as soon as the war had actually begun. On July 25 he was defeated at Custozza and compelled to sign a truce with Austria and withdraw his forces from Lombardy.

896. Conditions in Austria. Meanwhile conditions in Austria began to be favorable to a reëstablishment of the emperor's former influence. Each of the various peoples under Austrian rule determined to make itself largely independent, and great was the confusion that ensued. The Czechs[1] and Germans in Bohemia hated one another. The Germans naturally opposed the plan of making Bohemia practically independent of the government of Vienna, for it was German Vienna to which they were wont to look for protection against the enterprises of their Czechish fellow countrymen. An insurrection that broke out among the people of Prague gave General Windischgrätz, the commander of the Austrian forces, a sufficient excuse for intervening. He established a military government, and the prospect of independence for Bohemia vanished. This was Austria's first real victory.

897. Insurrection of the Radicals in Vienna Suppressed. In October, 1848, the radical party rose in Vienna, as it had in Paris after the deposition of Louis Philippe. The minister of

[1] The Slavic inhabitants of Bohemia.

war was brutally murdered, and the emperor fled. The city was, however, besieged by General Windischgrätz and was forced to surrender. The imperial government was now in a position still further to strengthen itself. A reactionary ministry was formed and the emperor, a notoriously inefficient person, was forced to abdicate (December 2, 1848) in favor of his youthful nephew, Francis Joseph I, who ruled as emperor until his death in 1916.

FRANCIS JOSEPH AT HIS ACCESSION

Francis Joseph (1830–1916) witnessed the revolutions of 1848 at the age of eighteen and the great war of 1914 at the age of eighty-four

898. Suppression of Hungarian Republic. A vigorous campaign was begun against Hungary, which, under the influence of the patriotic Kossuth, had deposed its Hapsburg king and declared itself an independent republic under the presidency of Kossuth. The Tsar placed his forces at the disposal of Francis Joseph, and with the aid of an army of one hundred and fifty thousand Russians, who marched in from the east, the Hungarians were compelled, by the middle of August, to surrender. Austria took terrible vengeance upon the rebels. Thousands were hanged, shot, and imprisoned, and many, including Kossuth, fled to the United States or elsewhere. But within a few years Hungary won its independence by peaceful measures and became the equal of Austria in the dual federation, which from that time was officially known as Austria-Hungary (§ 920).

899. Austria reëstablishes the Former Conditions in Italy. Austria was soon able to reëstablish her power in Italy and to

sweep away most of the reforms that had been gained. Charles Albert abdicated in favor of his son Victor Emmanuel, who was destined before many years to become king of Italy (see next chapter).

900. Problems in forming a Constitution for Germany. In Germany, as elsewhere, Austria profited by the dissensions among her opponents. On May 18, 1848, the National Assembly, consisting of nearly six hundred representatives of the German people, had met at Frankfort. It immediately began the consideration of a new constitution that should satisfy the popular longings for a German state, to be governed by and for the people. But what were to be the confines of this new German state? There was no hesitation in deciding that all the Prussian territories should be admitted to the new union. As it appeared impossible to exclude Austria altogether, the assembly agreed to include those parts of her territory which had belonged to the confederation formed in 1815 (§ 851). This decision rendered the task of founding a strong German state practically impossible; for the new union was to include two great European powers who might at any moment become rivals, since Prussia would hardly consent to be led forever by Austria.

901. Frederick William IV refuses to become Emperor. The new constitution provided that there should be a hereditary emperor at the head of the government, and that exalted office was tendered to the king of Prussia. Frederick William IV hated revolution and doubted whether the National Assembly had any right to confer the imperial title on him. He also felt that a war with Austria, which was likely to ensue if he accepted the crown, would be dangerous to Prussia, and so refused the honor.

902. The German National Assembly Disperses; the Old Diet Restored. This decision rendered the year's work of the National Assembly fruitless, and its members gradually dispersed. Austria now insisted upon the reëstablishment of the old diet, and Prussia submitted.

903. Results of the Revolutions of 1848. While the revolutions of 1848 seem futile enough when viewed from the standpoint

of the hopes of March, they left some important indications of progress. The king of Prussia had granted his country a constitution, which, with some modifications, served Prussia down to the end of the World War. Piedmont also had obtained a constitution. The internal reforms, moreover, which these countries speedily introduced prepared them to lead once more, and this time with success, in a movement for national unity.

QUESTIONS

I. What were the causes of discontent with Louis Philippe's government? When and how was the Second Republic established? Why were the Socialists dissatisfied with the provisional government? Describe the experiment with the "national workshops" and its result. Give some of the causes that led to the reëlection of Louis Napoleon as president of the Second Republic. How did he succeed in reëstablishing the Empire?

II. Why was Austria regarded as the greatest enemy of liberal government in Europe? Name some of her possessions. What effect did the overthrow of Metternich have on the liberals in Europe? Describe the struggle in Italy for independence. What were the difficulties in making any peaceful settlement in Austrian territories? Describe the effort to establish a republic in Hungary. What was the outcome of the revolution of 1848 in Italy? Discuss the problems involved in making a strong German state. What was the result of the Frankfort Assembly? Why were the revolutions of 1848 unsuccessful?

GERMAN FEDERATION
SWITZERLAND
EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA
FRANCE
Danube
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
LOMBARDY-VENETIA
DUCHY OF MODENA
GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
TURKEY
Adriatic Sea
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
TWO SICILIES
SICILY
SARDINIA
Corsica (To France)
TYRRHENIAN SEA
AFRICA
Malta (To Great Britain)
Rome
Naples
Venice
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Florence
Trieste
Fiume
Ancona
Civita Vecchia
Palermo
Messina
Catania
Syracusa
Girgenti
Trapani
Marsala
Cagliari
Gaeta
Taranto
Otranto
Bari
Barletta
Foggia
Benevento
Capua
Salerno
Aquila
Pesaro
Leghorn
Lissa I.
La Maddalena I.
Caprera I.
Part of Kingdom of Sardinia
ITALY
1814-1859
0 50 100
Scale of Miles
8 M. N. ENG., BUFFALO 10 12 Longitude East 14 from Greenwich 16

CHAPTER XXXIX

CREATION OF THE KINGDOM OF ITALY AND OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

I. Founding of the Kingdom of Italy

904. How Two New European Powers were formed. Among the most important events of the latter half of the nineteenth century was the consolidation of the two great modern states of Italy and Germany. We should recall how weak and divided both of these countries had been during the Middle Ages, and how the German rulers had tried in vain to keep the various German countries under their control and at the same time incorporate Italy into the Holy Roman Empire. Both Germany and Italy fell apart for centuries into practically independent little principalities and city states, often warring with one another and often dominated by foreign powers. After the French king Charles VIII invaded Italy in 1495 (§ 504), France, Austria, and Spain fought with one another over bits of Italian territory, and later Napoleon rearranged both countries to suit his taste. The Congress of Vienna left Italy divided and assured Austria control over the northern portions. As for the German states, they were combined in a feeble union in which Austria and Prussia, with all their bitter rivalries, were included.

In spite of Metternich's efforts to maintain this situation there were leaders in both Germany and Italy working for unification, and finally, after centuries of disunion, weakness, and foreign intervention, both countries were wrought into powerful states during the twelve years from 1859 to 1871. We must now see how all this came about.

905. Early Efforts to unify Italy. After the Congress of Vienna leaders arose in Italy who strove to free their land from

foreign domination and unite the various states into a single powerful country. There were unsuccessful revolutions in 1820–1821, in 1830, and, as we have seen, in 1848–1849. Among these leaders Mazzini, the poet and man of letters, was the most famous. He joined the Carbonari (§ 856) for a time, but became disgusted with their mummeries and formed an association called "Young Italy" to carry on the movement for Italian unity. So the way was prepared for the king of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel, and his able minister, Cavour, to realize at last the dreams of the Italian patriots.

906. How Napoleon III intervened in Italian Affairs. The kingdom of Sardinia consisted mainly of Piedmont and the neighboring Savoy in northwestern Italy and had its capital at Turin; the island of Sardinia was a very unimportant part of the ruler's realms. After the unsuccessful war with Austria in 1848–1849 the country had been reorganized under a new constitution and became the nucleus around which all Italy might unite. Cavour easily induced Napoleon III to agree to lend his help if a new excuse could be found for attacking Austria and expelling her from northern Italy. Napoleon argued that since the Italians were a Latin race, like the French, a successful war against the German Austrians would be popular in France and would make his own position stronger. He also hoped he might add Savoy to France and perhaps become the protector of the proposed Italian confederation.

907. Abrupt Close of the War of 1859. Victor Emmanuel managed easily enough to fall out with Austria and was immediately reënforced by a French army. Austria managed the campaign badly and was defeated, June, 1859, in the fierce battles of Magenta and Solferino. But Napoleon was appalled by the horrors of actual war and seemingly startled at the enthusiasm aroused among the Italians, which he feared might result in so powerful an Italy that he would no longer be desired as protector. Consequently he left his work half done. Instead of freeing Italy to the Adriatic, as he had talked of doing, he arranged a peace with Austria by which she still held Venetia, but

ceded Lombardy to Victor Emmanuel and permitted him to annex the little duchies of Parma and Modena. It was also arranged that France should be rewarded for its trouble by receiving Savoy and Nice, which were racially French rather than Italian.

GARIBALDI

Garibaldi shares with Victor Emmanuel the national enthusiasm of Italy, and his monument, one of the finest in Rome, looks proudly over the Eternal City from a high hill. He was a republican, a convert of Mazzini, and had lived a restless life, having fought in South America and lived for a time in New York (where his house is preserved as a memorial). At the head of his "legion" of volunteers, clad in their gay red blouses, he was a most picturesque figure, and his rapid success in the south lent an element of romance to the unification of Italy

908. Formation of a Kingdom of Italy (1860). Napoleon III had, however, precipitated changes which he was powerless to check. Italy was now ready to fuse into a single state. Tuscany, as well as Modena and Parma, voted (March, 1860) to unite with Piedmont. Giuseppe Garibaldi, a famous republican leader, sailed for Sicily, where he assumed the dictatorship of the island in the name of Victor Emmanuel, "King of Italy." After expelling the troops of the king of Naples from Sicily, he crossed to the mainland, and early in September he entered Naples itself, just as the king fled from his capital.

909. Napoleon III prevents the Annexation of Rome. Garibaldi now proposed to march on Rome and proclaim the kingdom of Italy. This would have imperiled all the previous gains, for Napoleon III could not, in view of the strong Catholic sentiment in France, possibly permit the occupation of Rome and the destruction of the political independence of the Pope. He agreed

Map of Unification of Italy

that Victor Emmanuel might annex the outlying papal possessions to the north and reëstablish a stable government in Naples instead of Garibaldi's dictatorship. But Rome, the imperial city, with the territory immediately surrounding it, must be left to its old master. Victor Emmanuel accordingly marched southward and occupied Naples (October). Its king capitulated, and all southern Italy became a part of the kingdom of Italy.

910. Italian Unification only Partial. In February, 1861, the first Italian parliament was opened at Turin, and the process of

really amalgamating the heterogeneous portions of the new kingdom began. Yet the joy of the Italians over the realization of their hopes of unity and national independence was tempered by the fact that Austria still held one of the most famous of the Italian provinces, and that Rome, which typified Italy's former grandeur, was not included in the new kingdom. Within a decade, however, both these districts became a part of the kingdom of Italy owing to the policy of Prussia. William I and his adviser, Bismarck, were about to do for Germany what Victor Emmanuel and Cavour were accomplishing for Italy.

II. How Prussia defeated Austria and founded the North German Federation

911. Prussian Ambitions. We must now follow the story of modern Prussia and see how its ruling classes, by means of three wars, made themselves masters of Germany, and then developed such strength that its military leaders ventured, in the fatal year 1914, to risk further bloodshed to make Germany a "world power" by attempting to crush England, its great naval rival. In one sense Germany is the youngest of the larger European states; at the same time it became far the most dangerous by reason of its warlike ambitions; and nearly the whole world, including the United States, was finally forced to join in a terrific struggle with the kaiser and his armies in order to defend democratic institutions from the menace of Prussian autocracy.

912. Review of German History. The third German emperor, William II, was born in 1859, and it was during his boyhood that the empire over which he ruled as kaiser was created. All the efforts of the medieval emperors from Otto the Great to Frederick Barbarossa to unify Germany had proved vain (Chapter XVII). Under the long line of Hapsburg emperors, from Rudolph of Hapsburg to the last ruler of the Holy Roman Empire, Francis II, the German states became even more independent of one another than they had been in earlier centuries. Finally,

the first step toward German unification was made by Napoleon when, under his auspices, many of the little states were swallowed up by the larger ones in 1803 and the following years (§ 797 f.). The old Holy Roman Empire of the German nation came to an end in 1806, and Germany was completely under French influence for several years. After Napoleon's downfall a loose union of the surviving states into which Germany had been consolidated was formed at the Congress of Vienna. The attempt of the constitutional assembly of Frankfort in 1848–1849 to form a strong *democratic* empire under Prussia failed, because the king of Prussia refused to accept the crown, on the ground that the assembly had no right to offer it to him and that should he accept it he would, as he timidly feared, become involved in a war with Austria, which was excluded from the proposed union.

913. William I of Prussia (1861–1888). With the accession of William I in 1858[1] a new era dawned for Prussia. An ambitious king came into power, whose great aim was to expel Austria from the German Confederation and out of the remaining states to construct a firm union, under the domination of Prussia, which should take its place among the more important states of Europe. He saw that war would come sooner or later, and his first business was to strengthen his army.

914. The Prussian Army. The war of independence fought against Napoleon in 1813 had led the Prussian king to summon the whole nation to arms, and a law was passed in Prussia making service in the army obligatory upon every able-bodied male subject. The first thing that William I did was to increase the *annual* levy from forty to sixty thousand men and to see that all the soldiers remained in active service three years. They then passed into the reserve, according to the existing law, where for two years more they remained ready at any time to take up arms should it be necessary. William wished to increase the term of service in the reserve to four years. In this way the

[1] He ruled until 1861 as regent for his brother, Frederick William IV, who was incapacitated by disease.

state would claim seven of the years of early manhood and have an effective army of four hundred thousand without including men who were approaching middle life. The lower house of the Prussian parliament refused, however, to vote the necessary money for increasing the strength of the army.

915. Bismarck Leader of Prussia (1862). The king proceeded, nevertheless, with his plan, and in 1862 called to his side Otto von Bismarck, a Prussian statesman who could carry out that plan despite opposition. The new minister was a Prussian of the Prussians, and he dedicated his great abilities to the single object of Prussianizing all Germany. He believed firmly in the divine right of the Hohenzollern rulers; he hated parliaments and expressed contempt for the Liberal party, which had striven to create a democratic Germany in 1848. He had every confidence in the mailed fist and shining sword, by which he foresaw that he must gain his ends. He belonged to the highly conservative group of Prussian landed proprietors,—the so-called *Junkers*,—the same class that assumed so much responsibility in precipitating the World War in 1914.

916. Four Items in Bismarck's Program. In order to raise Prussia to the position of a dominating European power, Bismarck perceived that four things were necessary: (1) The Prussian army must be greatly strengthened, for without that he could not hope to carry out his audacious program. (2) Austria, hitherto so influential in German affairs, must be pushed out of Germany altogether, leaving the field to Prussia. (3) Prussian territory must be enlarged and consolidated by annexing those German states that separated the eastern possessions of the Hohenzollerns from their important holdings on the Rhine. (4) And, lastly, the large South German states, which disliked Prussia and suspected her motives, must in some way be induced to join a union under her headship.

The first obstacle that Bismarck met was the refusal of the lower house of the Prussian parliament to grant the money necessary for increasing the army. Bismarck frankly proclaimed, however, that the great questions of the time had to be decided "not by

speeches and votes of majorities but by blood and iron." So he went on with his plan of strengthening the army without waiting for legal appropriations.

917. The Danish War of 1864. Bismarck found the following excuse for attacking Austria. There were two provinces, Schleswig and Holstein, south of Denmark which had for centuries been

TERRITORY SEIZED BY PRUSSIA IN 1866

ruled by the Danish king, although they were largely inhabited by Germans and were not considered a part of Denmark. In 1863, in spite of the outcry in Germany, the king of Denmark decided to incorporate the provinces into his kingdom. Bismarck induced Austria to join Prussia in a war with Denmark (1864) and easily forced the Danish ruler to cede the provinces to his assailants *jointly*. Bismarck then proposed that the new territories be practically annexed to Prussia. When Austria protested he formed an alliance with the new kingdom of Italy and arranged that if Prussia went to war with Austria, Italy should also attack her, with the hope of gaining Venetia. The plan was carried out.

Austria tried to call out the troops of the German Confederation against Prussia, and Prussia declared the union of 1815 dissolved.

918. Speedy Victory of Prussia over Austria (1866). On June 12, 1866, Prussia formally declared war on Austria. Almost all the German rulers took sides against the Hohenzollern aggression, but the powerful Prussian army was ready for immediate action, so that, in spite of the suspicion and even hatred which the Liberal party in Prussia entertained for the autocratic Bismarck, all resistance on the part of the states of the North was promptly prevented. Austria was defeated on July 3 in the decisive battle of Sadowa, and within three weeks after the breaking off of diplomatic relations the war was practically over. The influence of Austria was at an end, and Prussia had proved her power to do with Germany as she pleased.

919. The North German Federation. Prussia was aware that the larger states south of the Main River were not ripe for the union that she desired. She therefore organized a so-called North German Federation, which included all the states north of the Main. Prussia had grasped the opportunity to increase her own boundaries and round out her territory by seizing the North German states, with the exception of Saxony, that had gone to war against her. Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort, along with the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, all were added to the kingdom of the Hohenzollerns.

920. Formation of the Austro-Hungarian Dual State. After Austria had been expelled from Germany in 1866 the relations between the Austrian Empire and the kingdom of Hungary were adjusted by a compromise. Francis Joseph agreed to regard himself as ruling over two separate and practically independent states: (1) Austria, including seventeen provinces — Upper and Lower Austria, Bohemia, Moravia, Carinthia, and the rest; and (2) Hungary, including Croatia and Slavonia. Each of these two states had its own parliament, — one at Vienna, the other at Pesth. But the dual state was to have one army and a sort of joint parliament to manage the affairs common to both parts of the union. In spite of a great deal of discontent on the part of the Slavic

population, both in Austria and in Hungary, who resented the predominating position assumed by the German element in Austria and the Hungarian element in Hungary, this curious federation of two states lasted down until 1918, when it all fell to pieces as a result of the World War.

III. The Franco-Prussian War of 1870 and the Establishment of the German Empire

921. Disappointment of Napoleon III. No one was more chagrined by the abrupt termination of the war of 1866 and the speedy victory of Prussia than Napoleon III. He had hoped that the combatants might be weakened by a long struggle, and that at last he might have an opportunity to arbitrate, and perhaps to extend the boundaries of France, as had happened after the Italian war. But Prussia came out of the conflict with greatly increased power and territory, while France had gained nothing. An effort of Napoleon's to get a foothold in Mexico had failed, owing to the recovery of the United States from the Civil War and their warning that they should regard his continued intervention there as a hostile act.

922. The Franco-Prussian War (1870–1871). One course remained for the French emperor, namely, to permit himself to be forced into a war with Prussia, which had especially roused the jealousy of France. The nominal pretext for hostilities was relatively unimportant.[1] Bismarck eagerly encouraged war with France, for he believed that if the South German states were to

[1] In 1869 Spain was without a king, and the crown was tendered to Leopold of Hohenzollern, a very distant relative of William I of Prussia. This greatly excited the people of Paris, for it seemed to them only an indirect way of bringing Spain under the influence of Prussia. The French minister of foreign affairs declared that the arrangement was an attempt to "reëstablish the empire of Charles V." In view of this opposition Leopold withdrew his acceptance of the Spanish crown early in July, 1870, and Europe believed the incident to be at an end. The French ministry, however, was not satisfied with this and demanded that the king of Prussia should pledge himself that the plan should never be renewed. This William refused to do. Bismarck did not hesitate to *falsify* the actual circumstances in the German newspapers in such a way that it appeared as if the French ambassador had *insulted* King William. The Parisians at the same time received the impression that their ambassador had received an affront, and demanded an immediate declaration of war.

unite under Prussia against a common enemy, they would later join the North German Federation. On the other hand, the hostility which the South German states had formerly shown toward Prussia encouraged Napoleon III to believe that as soon as the French troops should gain their first victory, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden would join him.

923. Victory of the Germans. That first victory was never won. War had no sooner been declared than the Germans laid all jealousy aside and ranged themselves as a nation against France. The French army, moreover, was neither well equipped nor well commanded. The Germans hastened across the Rhine and within a few days were driving the French before them. In a series of bloody encounters about Metz one of the French armies was defeated and finally shut up within the fortifications of the town. Seven weeks had not elapsed after the beginning of the war before the Germans had captured a second French army and made a prisoner of the emperor himself in the great battle of Sedan, September 1, 1870.

The Germans then laid siege to Paris. Napoleon III had been completely discredited by the disasters about Metz and at Sedan, and consequently the Empire was abolished and France for the third time was declared a republic. In spite of the energy which the new government showed in arousing the French against the invaders, prolonged resistance was impossible. The French capital surrendered January 28, 1871, an armistice was arranged, and the war was to all intents and purposes over.

924. Cession of Alsace and Lorraine and the Indemnity. Bismarck humiliated France, in arranging the treaty of peace, by requiring the cession of two French provinces—Alsace and northeastern Lorraine.[1] The Germans wished for a visible sign that they had had their revenge on the French. Many of the Alsatians, it is true, spoke a German dialect, but the provinces had no desire to become a part of the German Empire.

[1] Alsace had, with certain exceptions,—especially as regarded Strassburg and the other free towns,—been ceded to the French king by the Treaty of Westphalia (§ 590). During the reign of Louis XIV all of Alsace had been annexed to France (1681). The duchy of Lorraine had upon the death of its last duke fallen to France in 1766.

The Germans exacted a heavy war indemnity from France —a billion dollars—and proclaimed that German troops would remain in France until the sum was paid. The French people made pathetic sacrifices to hasten the payment of the indemnity in order to free their country from the presence of the detested "Prussians." The bitter feeling between France and Germany dates from this war. The natural longing of the French for their "lost provinces," and the suspicions of the Germans, not only prevented the nations from becoming friends but had much to do with the sudden and inexcusable attack which Germany made on France in August, 1914. The fate of Alsace-Lorraine was from the first one of the crucial issues of the World War.

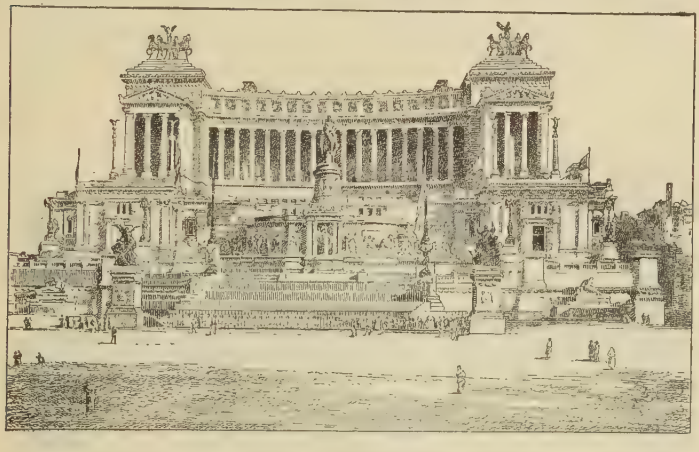
925. Proclamation of the German Empire, January 18, 1871. The war between France and Prussia in 1870, instead of hindering the development of Germany, as Napoleon III had hoped it would, only served to consummate the work of 1866. The South German states,—Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and South Hesse, —having sent their troops to fight side by side with the Prussian forces, consented after their common victory over France to join the North German Federation. Surrounded by the German princes, William, King of Prussia and President of the North German Federation, was proclaimed German Emperor in the palace of Versailles, January, 1871. In this way the German Empire came into existence. With its victorious army and its wily chancellor, Bismarck, it immediately took an important place among the western powers of Europe and sought to increase its power.

IV. The Final Unification of Italy

926. Rome added to the Kingdom of Italy (1870). The unification of Italy was completed, like that of Germany, by the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. After the war of 1866 Austria had ceded Venetia to Italy. Moreover, in August, 1870, the reverses of the war compelled Napoleon to recall the French garrison from Rome, and the Pope made little effort to defend his capital against the Italian army, which occupied it in September. The

people of Rome voted by an overwhelming majority to join the kingdom of Italy, and the work of Victor Emmanuel and Cavour was completed by transferring the capital to the Eternal City.

927. Position of the Pope. Although the papal possessions were declared a part of the kingdom of Italy, a law was passed which guaranteed to the Pope the rank and privileges of a

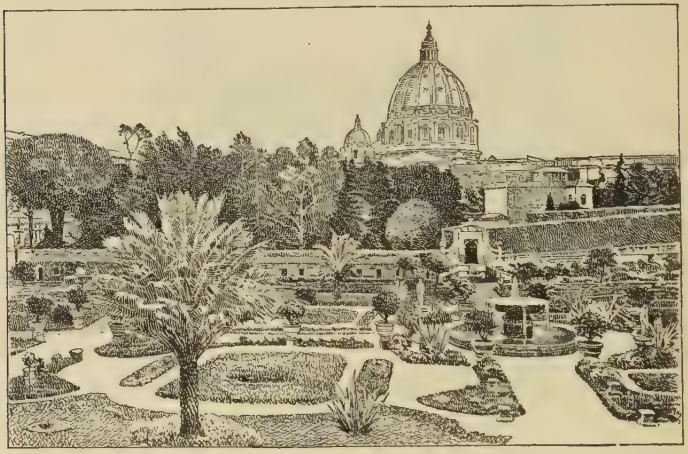


MONUMENT TO VICTOR EMMANUEL II, AT ROME

On the northwestern slope of the Capitoline Hill the Italians have erected the most imposing monument in Europe, to commemorate the unification of Italy. Its size is indicated in the picture by the relative size of people and buildings. A colossal statue of Victor Emmanuel adorns the center, while a vast colonnade surmounts the hill. The Forum of ancient Rome lies just behind it; but the monument faces in the opposite direction, down a broad, busy street of the modern city, which is growing rapidly. Electric cars now connect the seven hills, and arc lights shine beside the Colosseum

sovereign prince. As head of the Church the Pope was to be entirely independent of the king of Italy. A sum of over six hundred thousand dollars annually was also appropriated to aid the Pope in defraying his expenses. He, however, refused to recognize the arrangement, regarding himself as a prisoner and the Italian government as a usurper who had robbed him of his possessions.

928. Italy becomes a European Power. In order to maintain the dignity of her new position Italy rapidly increased her army and navy. Universal military service was introduced as in other European states, and modern warships were built. Then the Italians set about gaining colonies in Africa and in 1887 sent an army into Abyssinia; but after some fifteen years of intermittent warfare they were able to retain only a strip along the coast of the



THE PAPAL GARDENS AT THE VATICAN, ROME

These few acres, along with a summer residence which the popes never use, and the two churches of the Vatican and the Lateran in Rome, are all that is left of the temporal sovereignty of the papacy

Red Sea about twice the size of the state of Pennsylvania. Again, in 1911, by a war with Turkey, they took Tripoli on the south shore of the Mediterranean (§ 1103).

929. Emigration from Italy. The cost of armaments made Italy almost bankrupt at times, and as it was not a rich country, taxes were very high. Since these fell largely upon the poor, hundreds of thousands of Italians left their land as emigrants, preferring the United States or Argentina to their own colonies. Many of those who stayed at home became discontented with the government, some becoming Socialists. Still the present monarchy has

proved much better than the old governments which it replaced. Much of the revenue has been spent on other things than armaments. Railroads have been built by the state to open up the country. Manufactures have grown up in the northern part, so that Milan is today one of the great manufacturing cities of Europe. National schools are bringing improvement in education, although the peasants in the mountainous districts are still very ignorant and superstitious.

Victor Emmanuel died in 1878. His son Humbert was assassinated by an anarchist in 1900. Humbert's son and successor, the present king, Victor Emmanuel III, is regarded as an enlightened man desirous of ruling within the limits of the constitution. The monarchy is in practice, as in form, quite similar to that of England.

QUESTIONS

I. Review briefly the history of Italy from the break-up of the Roman Empire to 1859. What was the importance of Sardinia in Italy? Why was Napoleon III ready to intervene in Italian affairs? What was the result of his intervention? How was the kingdom of Italy founded, and what Italian territories were not included in the union of 1861?

II. Why is Germany called the youngest of the European powers? How did the unification of Germany really begin? Why did Prussia play such an important rôle in Germany? What was the policy of William I and Bismarck? What do you know of the German army? What had the Schleswig-Holstein affair to do with the war of 1866? What was the North German Federation?

III. How did France become involved in war with Germany in 1870? What was the course of the war? What were the terms of peace? Why did these prove disastrous not only to Germany but to the world at large? How did the final unification of Germany take place?

IV. When and how was Italy finally unified? What is the position of the Pope? Why do Italian emigrants go to America in preference to their own colonies?

CHAPTER XL

THE GERMAN EMPIRE AND THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC

I. Development of Germany (1871–1914)

930. The Predominance of Prussia in the German Empire. In the North German Federation of 1866 Prussia, with the German states she had just seized, constituted nearly the whole union. After the South German states joined the federation and so formed the German Empire, Prussia still formed nearly *two thirds* of the whole empire, and her citizens amounted to nearly *two thirds* of the entire population of Germany.

We may be sure that Bismarck, with his Prussian autocratic ideas and his confidence in armies and kings, would see to it that the new constitution for the empire insured the control of Germany by Prussia and the Junker class to which he himself belonged. The dominating position of Prussia and her king was so cleverly disguised that it sometimes seemed to escape the Germans themselves.

931. Powers of the Kaiser. The "presidency" of the empire was vested in the king of Prussia, but he was not, in theory, the monarch of Germany, in spite of his august title of "emperor" (*Kaiser*). Emperor William II, it is true, always talked as if he ruled by the grace of God, but he had no constitutional right to such a claim. He did, however, according to Prussian law, rule Prussians by "divine right," and they, as we have seen, constituted a great part of the German people. The emperor did not have a right directly to veto the measures passed by the imperial parliament, but he exercised many of the powers which would fall to an absolute monarch. He appointed and dismissed the chancellor of the empire, who was, with his "all-highest" self, the chief official spokesman of Germany. What was most dangerous for the rest

of the world, the kaiser commanded the unconditional obedience of all German soldiers and sailors and appointed the chief officers in the army and navy. He had only to say that the Fatherland was "attacked," and he could hurl the German armies against any innocent neighbor he chose without asking anyone's approval. This he did when he ordered the invasion of Belgium and the attack on France in 1914.

932. The *Bundesrat*. The real sovereignty, however, according to the constitution, resided in the whole body of the German rulers included in the union, and therefore especially in the Federal Council, or *Bundesrat*, to which the various governments sent their representatives. This council was much more important than the Senate of the United States or any other upper house in Europe. It initiated the important laws and was presided over by the imperial chancellor. Prussia's influence in it was secured by assigning her king a sufficient number of votes to enable him to veto any measure he wished.

933. The *Reichstag*. The House of Representatives, or *Reichstag*, consisting of about four hundred members, was elected by universal male suffrage for a term of five years. The emperor, however, might dissolve it at any time with the consent of the Bundesrat, and did so on occasions when it refused to pass the measures of his ministers. It exercised much less control of the government than does the British House of Commons or the United States House of Representatives. Moreover it did not fairly represent the people in the rapidly growing cities. Berlin, for instance, increased to two million inhabitants, but it had only six seats when it was entitled by its size to twenty. The government, however, refused to readjust the representation for fear the Socialists would gain more seats.

934. Laws establishing Uniformity throughout Germany. The constitution gave the Federal government power to regulate commerce, railways, telegraphs, currency, and the criminal and civil law. Under Bismarck the old systems of the various states were largely replaced by uniform regulations. The bewildering variety of coins and paper money in the several states was done

away with, and the mark (normally worth about twenty-five cents) became the basis for the currency of the whole empire. A tariff system was introduced to protect the entire country from foreign competition and encourage home industries. So it will be seen that Germany rapidly became a remarkably well-organized and powerful state, with little resemblance to the weak and distracted old Holy Roman Empire out of which it had grown.

935. Bismarck and the Socialists. The Industrial Revolution did not get fully under way in Germany until after the middle of the nineteenth century, but in the period we are describing Germany was undergoing a rapid and profound change. Large manufacturing towns sprang up; railways were built; and the working classes began to feel themselves in need of defense against the power of the new factory owners. Socialism developed here as elsewhere as a result of the new conditions of manufacture. In addition to the formation of labor unions a new political party appeared, known as the Social Democratic Labor party, which based its platform upon the teachings of Karl Marx.

Bismarck grew alarmed, and in 1878 a law was passed to suppress socialistic agitation and leading socialists were imprisoned. They continued their secret propaganda, however, and Bismarck decided that to allay discontent the government should introduce certain socialistic measures of its own accord.

936. State Socialism in Germany. Bismarck was not opposed to having the government own and operate railroads and mines and conserve the natural resources. So it came about that the state-owned property in Germany amounted to about seven billions of dollars before the World War came, and brought in an income of about three hundred millions of dollars. The Federal government also arranged a system of insurance for workingmen against accident and sickness and required the employers to contribute to the expense. Similar laws were later passed to protect workmen against destitution on account of old age or incapacity to work. In 1913 over twenty-five million persons were insured under these laws.

This did not seem *real* socialism to the Socialists, but rather more of the old paternalism familiar to Prussia in the time of Frederick the Great. The existing capitalistic system of production was in no way affected by State socialism, and the workers themselves enjoyed no more influence over industry than they had previously. It was the State, not they, that gained control.

937. Accession of William II (1888). Kaiser William I, who with Bismarck's help had founded and developed the German Empire, died in 1888 full of years and honor among his people. He was succeeded by his grandson,[1] the "kaiser" of the World War, William II. Bismarck did not get along well with the arrogant new ruler and resigned in 1890. The kaiser chose a new chancellor from time to time, but none of them exhibited the capacity of the "iron chancellor," as Bismarck was called.

938. German Colonies. United Germany, like united Italy, embarked upon a colonial policy. In the later years of Bismarck's administration the Germans got control of large provinces (Togo and Kamerun) on the western coast of Africa. They moreover carved out a protectorate called German Southwest Africa, far larger than the whole area of the German Empire, and they established themselves in German East Africa, which was even more extensive (see map, p. 582). But few Germans cared to emigrate to the new colonies, and their treatment of the natives made them a good deal of trouble. The enterprise cannot be said to have paid very well. In 1897 the Germans seized the port of Kiaochow in China and began to exhibit great jealousy in regard to the colonial expansion of England and France. When the World War began Germany speedily lost all her colonies.

939. Growth of Germany in Numbers and Wealth. During the reign of William II Germany grew rapidly in wealth and population. The population in 1870 was about 40,000,000; in 1914 it was almost 68,000,000, a larger increase than in any other country in western Europe. Vast new cities grew up; old ones

[1] William II's father, Frederick, lived for only a few months after the death of the "old kaiser." The new kaiser was a grandson of Queen Victoria of England and spoke and wrote English excellently.

widened their narrow streets, destroyed their slums, and spread out along miles of boulevards, as new as those of Chicago. German steamship lines, heavily subsidized by the government, developed rapidly, and their vessels were soon sailing on every sea. The farmers and manufacturers flourished, owing to their new markets throughout the world opened by the new German merchant marine. Workmen stopped emigrating to the United States and South America, because times were good at home and it was easy to get enough to do.

940. The German Business Men controlled by the State. Individual Englishmen and individual English companies had built up England's world commerce. But German business men were generally backed by the German government, which put its power and money at their disposal. So they did not work simply for themselves, but the State saw to it that they worked for the aggrandizement of the German government.

From a relatively poor country in 1871 Germany became rich and insolent. Although the Germans were well treated by all other nations, including England and France, they imagined that they were surrounded on all sides by an "iron ring" of enemies. When by peaceful means they were becoming a highly important commercial nation they began to denounce England as a pirate and to talk of making "a place in the sun" for themselves by crushing her as their chief enemy and becoming the foremost world power.

941. The Germans taught to revere the State and its Officials. Unfortunately the other nations did not take this German talk seriously. Few imagined that the old Prussian spirit of the Great Elector, Frederick the Great, and Bismarck and the talk of Fichte and other German philosophers, historians, and economists about German superiority would take the form of an armed attempt to put the theories into practice. Nevertheless this happened. The German conception of the State was quite different from that which prevails in democratic countries. Lincoln once defined democracy as "the government of the people, by the people, for the people." But in Germany the people were taught

by their officials that the State is something more precious than the interests of all those who compose it. It was the duty of the people not to control the State in their own interests but to obey the government officials and believe what the government told them. There was no large liberal party in Germany to oppose ancient Prussian despotism and militarism. The Social Democrats, it is true, often talked against autocracy and militarism. But few of them were proof against the war spirit when the kaiser and his advisers precipitated the great conflict in 1914.

II. The Third French Republic (1871–1914)

942. The Insurrection of the Paris Commune of 1871. When the news reached Paris of the surrender of Napoleon at Sedan a group of Republicans at once proclaimed a republic. A provisional government was hastily set up to carry on the war, and when the conflict was over a National Assembly was elected, in February, 1871, to make peace with Germany. But peace was hardly made before this temporary government was called upon to subdue an insurrection of the Parisian populace. The insurgents were afraid that the Assembly, which was largely composed of Royalists, wished to reëstablish monarchy, so they organized a city government like the Commune of the Revolution (§ 768) and prepared to defend Paris against the national troops. The struggle that followed was terrible. The rebels were guilty of atrocities, such as the murder of the Archbishop of Paris and other prisoners, and the army which was sent against them gave them no quarter. After two months of disorder the forces of the Commune were completely routed in a series of bloody street fights. The victorious government showed no mercy; hundreds were shot after hasty trial, and the rebellion was put down in blood. More persons were killed than in the whole Reign of Terror.

943. Surprisingly Rapid Recovery of France. The National Assembly, under the presidency of the veteran statesman Thiers, then proceeded to get rid of the German garrisons by paying the huge indemnity to Germany. To the surprise of everyone France

paid the five billion francs in three years, and the country gradually recovered from the demoralization caused by the war. France also reorganized its army, requiring every Frenchman to serve five years in the active army[1] and fifteen in the reserve.

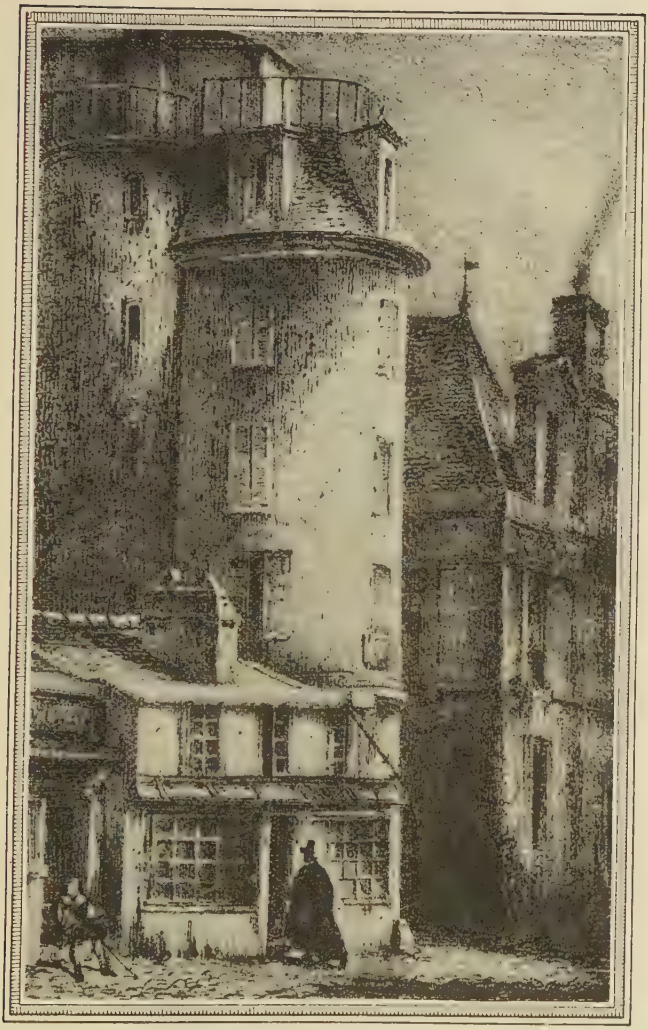
944. Constitution of the French Republic. The National Assembly had the further task of drawing up a constitution for France. There was much uncertainty for several years as to just what form the constitution would permanently take. But the monarchists quarreled among themselves and had no good candidate for the throne.[2] As a result, those who advocated maintaining the Republic prevailed, and in 1875 the Assembly passed a series of three laws organizing the government. These have since served France as a constitution. The president is elected for seven years by both Senate and Chamber of Deputies meeting together. The real head of the government, however, is the prime minister. He and the other ministers form a cabinet, responsible to parliament, as in England.[3]

945. The Republic and the Church. The Catholic clergy from the first had been hostile to the Republic, for the Republicans stood for such things as a national public-school system free from

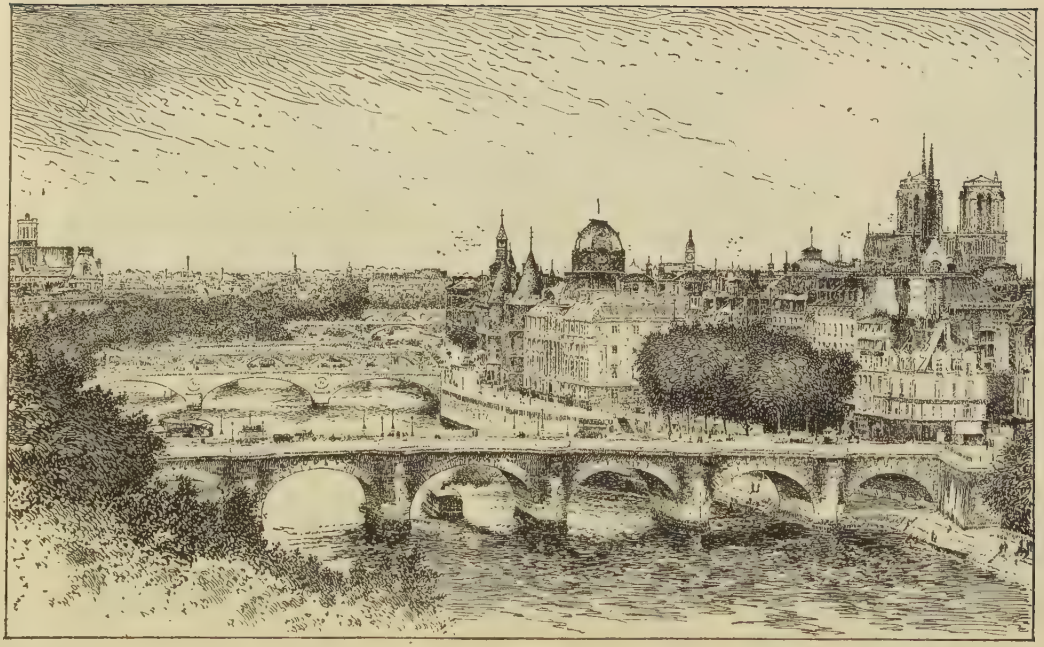
[1] This was gradually reduced later to two years' active service and eleven years in the reserve. In 1913, however, the term of active service was lengthened to three years, in order to keep pace with the increasing German army.

[2] The monarchical party naturally fell into two groups. One, the so-called *Legitimists*, believed that the elder Bourbon line, to which Louis XVI and Charles X had belonged, should be restored in the person of the count of Chambord, a grandson of Charles X (see table, p. 480). The *Orleanists*, on the other hand, wished the grandson of Louis Philippe, the count of Paris, to be king. In 1873 the Orleanists agreed to help the count of Chambord to the throne as Henry V, but that prince frustrated the plan by refusing to accept the national colors,— red, white, and blue,— which had become so endeared to the nation that it appeared dangerous to exchange them for the ancient white flag of the Bourbons.

[3] The parliament of France differs from the Congress of the United States or the Parliament of Great Britain in the way it works. Instead of having two great parties there are about ten groups of members, each representing certain ideas. A few Monarchists still sit on the seats at the extreme right of the speaker's desk, or tribune. Next to them sit very conservative Republicans. The largest group is that of the "Radicals," or reformers, while at the left are quite a number of Socialists, representing the working classes. The cabinet must have the support of a majority in the Chamber of Deputies, as the house of representatives is called, which is elected every four years by universal male suffrage. The Senate is elected for nine years by a more complicated system, one hundred being elected every third year, and tends to be more conservative than the Chamber.



An Interesting View of Old Paris, showing the Home of the First President of the *Parlement* of Paris



PARIS

Church control, liberty of the press, and other ideas which seemed to be undermining the authority of the Church. A public-school system was established in which clergymen were forbidden to teach, and the private schools, which had been mainly run by religious orders, were placed under strict government inspection. As the monastic orders opposed the carrying out of this and similar laws, which they regarded as persecution, parliament finally closed their schools and forced the religious orders to disband. As a result many monks and nuns left France.

946. Separation of Church and State. The next step was more far-reaching. By the treaty, or "Concordat," of 1801 between Napoleon and the Pope the bishops were appointed by the government, and the salaries of all the clergy were paid by the State,[1] much as had been the case in the old régime. The clergy, therefore, naturally a very influential class because of their religious duties, were in a sense government officials as well as clergymen.

Many of the Republicans had ceased to believe in what the Church taught, and finally a law was passed in 1905 to separate Church and State in France. The government stopped the state contributions to the clergy, but placed the churches and their furniture at the disposal of the priests. On the other hand, in order to punish the clergy for refusing to accept the new arrangement, palaces of bishops and theological seminaries were turned into schools and hospitals. The Catholic Church in France is now dependent, as are all churches in America, upon the voluntary contributions of those who are interested in supporting them.

947. Progress during the Third Republic. France under the Third Republic steadily advanced in wealth, the French people being noted for their thrift and economy. The savings of French peasants enabled the great banks to lend money to other nations, particularly Russia, so that Paris came to rival London and New York as a money center of the world. France has been somewhat slow in adopting governmental measures for improving the

[1] Although the Catholic religion was recognized as that of the majority of Frenchmen, the State also recognized the Reformed (Calvinists) and Lutheran churches and the Jewish religious community.

condition of workingmen, although in recent years it has perfected many plans for social insurance. The slowness with which it has taken up these ideas is due mainly to the fact that the peasants and the richer classes can combine to control a majority of votes in the parliament, and as they derive little benefit from such laws and have to pay most of the taxes, they are inclined to refuse to make the necessary appropriations.

948. The *Syndicats*, or Trade-unions. The result of this is that the working classes in the cities ceased to hope for very much help by way of new laws passed to promote their interests. Although they continued to send Socialists to represent them in parliament, they relied rather upon trade-unions. These are called *syndicats* by the French, and the more determined of these unions proposed to win their way by strikes until they could force the capitalists to meet their demands. Such a method of attack upon employers is known as "syndicalism," or "direct action."

In spite of recurring troubles of this kind, France nevertheless prospered, especially in the period just before the World War. It also entered upon a policy of expansion in Africa and Asia, which involved it in trouble with Germany, as we shall see later.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the North German Federation grow into the German Empire? What were the powers of the kaiser? Contrast the position of the Bundesrat with that of the United States Senate. Describe the Reichstag. What important reforms did the federal system bring to Germany? Why did socialism appear in Germany at about the period of unification? What was Bismarck's "State socialism"? Describe the growth of Germany since unification. Describe German commercial methods. How are Germans taught to view the State?

II. How did the present French Republic originate? What events in Paris in 1870 suggest the Reign of Terror? What is the nature of the present French constitution? What parties existed in France after 1871? Review the main changes in the form of the French government since the assembling of the Estates General in 1789. Why was the Church against the Republic? What did the Church lose when the Concordat was ended? What are the ideas of the syndicalists?

CHAPTER XLI

GREAT BRITAIN AND HER EMPIRE

I. The English Constitution

949. English Political Parties. The English constitution, although unwritten, has long been a source of pride to those who live under it and has served as the model for a number of constitutions drawn up on the Continent since the French Revolution. In the eighteenth century England had already greatly reduced and restricted the powers of her monarch and put the control into the hands of Parliament. We must now briefly consider her system of party government and the responsibility of her king's ministers to Parliament.

950. Party Government. After the Civil War, in the seventeenth century (§ 606), two great political parties appeared in England — the Tories and the Whigs. The Tories,— in recent times called *Conservatives*,[1] — were the successors of the Cavaliers, as the supporters of Charles I were named. They believed in defending the powers claimed by the king and the English Church. The Whigs, or *Liberals*, were the successors of the Roundhead, or parliamentary, party of Charles I's time. This party had overthrown the Stuarts, gained the Bill of Rights, and in the nineteenth century won the name of Reform party, from the kind of laws which it advocated. Only recently has the Labor party become important.

The party which happens to have the majority of votes in the House of Commons claims the right to manage the government of the country as long as it retains its majority. The leader

[1] When Gladstone introduced his Home Rule Bill for Ireland in 1886, many Liberals who opposed his policy deserted to join the Conservatives, who have since generally been called *Unionists*.

of the party in power is accepted by the monarch as his *prime minister*, or *premier*. He and his associates form a *cabinet* which for the time being is the real ruler of the British Empire.

951. The Cabinet and Parliament. This device of cabinet government under a premier was put into operation in the time of George I, a German unable to speak English, who did not attend the meetings of his ministers (§ 624). The little group of ministers constituting the cabinet got into the habit of holding its sessions and reaching its decisions without the presence of the king.

Since the House of Commons will not vote the money necessary to carry on the government after it has lost confidence in the cabinet, the cabinet has to resign as soon as it is convinced by the defeat of any of its measures that it no longer controls a majority of votes. The king then appoints the leader of the opposite party as premier and asks him to form a cabinet. It may happen, however, that the defeated cabinet believes that the country is on its side. In this case it will ask the king to dissolve Parliament and have a new election, with the hope that it will gain a majority in that way. So it is clear that the cabinet regards itself as responsible not merely to Parliament but to the nation at large.

952. Parliament responsible to the Nation. As the members of the House of Commons are not elected for a definite term of years (though, according to a law passed in 1911, a new general election must be held *at least* every five years), that body may be dissolved at any time for the purpose of securing an expression of the popular will on any important issue. It is thus clear that the British government is more sensitive to public opinion than are governments where the members of the legislatures are chosen for a definite term of years.

953. Need for Reform of Parliament. Parliament in the eighteenth century did not, however, represent the people at large. Towns which had formerly sent members continued to do so no matter how they had happened to shrink in size, while other towns, like Manchester, Leeds, and Birmingham, which had sprung up as a result of the Industrial Revolution, had no representatives at all. Then there was much bribery at elections, and

many seats in the House of Commons were controlled by members of the House of Lords. After long delay a bill was passed in 1832 which deprived fifty-six of the so-called "rotten boroughs" of their ancient right to elect members, and forty-three new boroughs were created. Arrangements were made for extending the right to vote to the more prosperous classes, but nearly all workingmen and farm hands were still excluded.

954. The Chartist Movement. The reformers were not satisfied with these changes and drew up a *charter* and presented it as a petition to Parliament, demanding, among other things, that all men be permitted to vote, that the balloting be secret, and that the members of Parliament should be paid, so that poor men might afford to accept seats in that body. These "Chartists," as the reformers were called, organized great parades to give publicity to the petition and claimed to have got over a million signatures to the charter. Parliament paid no attention to the petition nor to a similar one which the Revolution of 1848 encouraged the Chartists to prepare. There were some uprisings of the working people, which were put down by the police; but no considerable revolt took place as on the Continent. But in 1867 Parliament agreed to double the number of voters, and in 1884 the number was increased by two millions. Still many poorer laborers were not permitted to vote.

955. Establishment of Universal Suffrage. No further extension of the right to vote was made until the early twentieth century. Then the women began to demand the vote as well as the men, and a militant suffrage party appeared and resorted to various forms of violence to gain attention. After ten years of discussion Great Britain finally became a democracy in 1917, when Parliament passed a bill granting the right to vote to adult males, and to about six million women who "occupied" land or houses or were the wives of "occupiers."[1]

[1] The granting of the right to vote to women is one of the most important and interesting events of the early twentieth century. Australia granted suffrage to women in 1901; Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark between 1907 and 1915. The World War established the same right not only in England but in the United States, Russia, Germany, Hungary, and other countries.

II. General Reforms in England

956. Freedom of Speech. In addition to the reforms in their Parliament the English have gradually altered their laws with a view to giving the people greater freedom and to improving their condition in important respects.

One of the most important conditions of a free people is the right of free speech, free press, and liberty to meet for political discussions. Although during the eighteenth century English laws were less oppressive than those on the Continent, it was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that full liberty of speech was attained. Now England is very proud of this necessary institution of democracy.

957. Religious Toleration. England was a country of religious freedom in the eighteenth century, but Catholics and those Protestants who disagreed with the State Church—namely, the Dissenters—were excluded from public offices. After long agitation this restriction was removed. In 1828 the old laws directed against Dissenters were repealed on condition that those seeking office should take an oath not to use their influence to injure or weaken the established Church of England. The following year the Catholics were put on the footing of other citizens by the passage of the Emancipation Act, which admitted them to both houses of Parliament and to almost all public offices upon condition that they would renounce their belief in the right of the Pope to interfere in temporal matters and would disclaim all intention of attacking the Protestant religion.

958. Public Schools. In the early part of the nineteenth century there was still a good deal of illiteracy in England. Since 1870 the government has been providing for the founding of free public schools, and as a result almost all English children now learn to read and write. As newspapers may now be had for a penny or so, almost everyone is in a position to buy them, read them, and learn what is going on in the world.

959. Reform of the Criminal Law and Prisons. The English criminal law was very harsh at the opening of the nineteenth

century. There were no less than two hundred and fifty offenses for which the penalty of death was established. By a gradual process of abolishing one death penalty after another the long list of capital offenses was at last reduced to three in 1861. In 1835, after a parliamentary investigation had revealed the horrible conditions of prisons, a law was passed providing for government inspection and the improvement of their administration, and this marked the beginning of prison reform.

960. Wretchedness in English Factories. The factory system had brought untold misery to the working classes of England. Great factory buildings were hastily erected by men who paid little attention to the welfare and comfort of the workers. Around the factories there sprang up long, dreary rows of grimy brick cottages where the workmen and their families were crowded together. The introduction of steam-driven machinery had made possible the use of child labor on a large scale. The conditions of adult labor, save in the most skilled classes, were almost as wretched as those of child labor.

961. Factory Reform begins (1833). Finally, in 1833, Parliament, after much investigation, reduced the hours of child labor in cotton and woolen mills, and in 1842 women and children were forbidden to work in the mines. It was not until 1847 that a bill was passed restricting the labor of women and children in mills to ten hours.

With this great victory for the reformers the general resistance to State interference was broken down, and year after year, through the long reign of Queen Victoria (1837–1901) and those of her successors, new measures were carried through Parliament, revising and supplementing earlier laws, until today England does more than any other European country for the welfare of the factory operatives.

962. England's Free Trade. England is famous for its free trade, while almost all other countries *protect* their manufacturers by a tariff imposing customs duties on most articles imported from foreign countries. England believed heartily in protection and shipping laws until about the middle of the nineteenth century, when

English manufacturers decided that they could compete with the world on a free-trade basis. First, all duties on grain (the Corn Laws) were abolished, and then, between 1852 and 1867, all navigation laws and protective duties were done away with.

963. Program of the Liberal Party (1906). The Conservatives —or, as they had come to be called, the Unionists—were (except for a short period) in power for twenty years, from 1886 to 1906, and interest in general reform seemed to have died out in England. But in 1906 a general election took place, and the Liberals, reenforced by a new Labor party and the Irish Nationalists, came into control of the House of Commons. A new period of reform then began which continued until it was interrupted by the outbreak of the World War in 1914.

Lloyd George

The parties in power agreed that something must be done to relieve the poverty in which it was found that a great part of the population lived. Bills were introduced providing help for those injured in factories and pensions for aged workmen no longer able to earn a livelihood; for diminishing the evils of sweatshops, where people worked for shockingly low wages; for securing work for the unemployed; for providing meals for poor school children; and for properly housing the poverty-stricken and so getting rid of slums.

964. Lloyd George's War on Misery. In 1908 David Lloyd George became Chancellor of the Exchequer, in charge of the nation's finances. In April, 1909, Lloyd George made a famous speech in introducing his budget. "I am told," he said, "that no chancellor of the exchequer has ever been called on to impose

QUEEN VICTORIA NOTIFIED OF HER ACCESSION

such heavy taxes in a time of peace. This is a war budget. It is for raising money to wage implacable warfare against poverty and squalidness. I cannot help hoping and believing that before this generation has passed away we shall have advanced a great step towards that good time when poverty and wretchedness and human degradation, which always follow in its camp, will be as remote to the people of this country as the wolves which once infested its forests."[1]

965. The House of Lords Humbled. The budget advocated by Lloyd George passed the House of Commons, but was rejected by the indignant House of Lords. Parliament was dissolved and a new election held to show that the voters were on the side of the ministry. Then the Lords yielded; but the Liberals had been so exasperated at their opposition that, by the Parliament Act of 1911, they took away the power of the Lords to interfere seriously in future with the will of the people as expressed in the elections.

III. The Irish Question

966. The English in Ireland. Among the most serious problems that have constantly agitated Parliament during the past century is the Irish question. As early as the time of Henry II (1154–1189) Ireland began to be invaded by the English, who seized lands from which they enjoyed the revenue. The Irish revolted under Elizabeth and again under Cromwell. They were cruelly punished, and more estates were confiscated. In 1688 the Irish sided with the Catholic king, James II, and were again subdued and more land was taken.

967. Absentee Landlords. Now the English landlords, to whom these estates were given, and their descendants, for the most part, lived in England. In the nineteenth century millions of

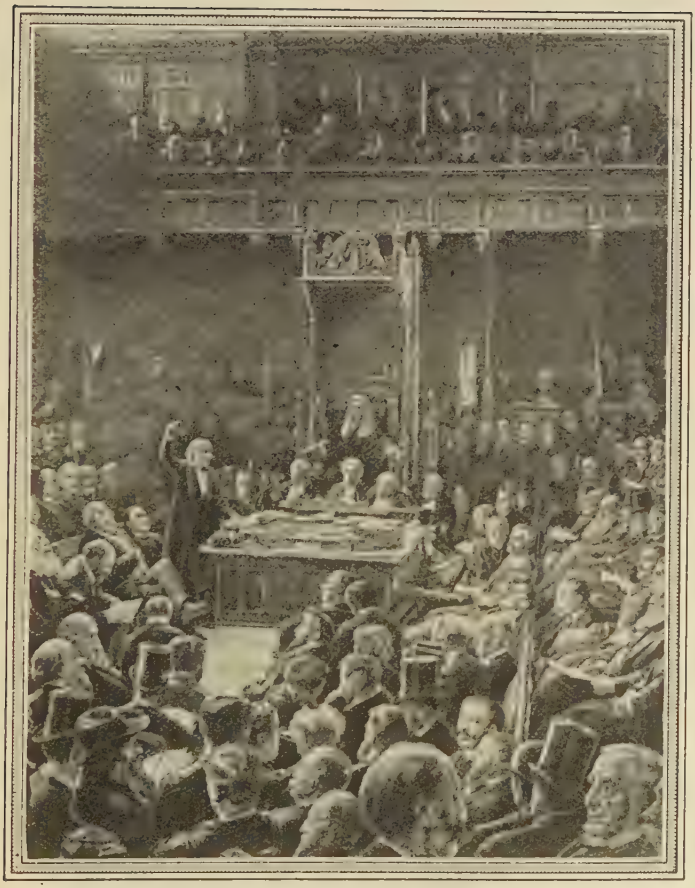
[1] It should be noticed that Lloyd George and his supporters, before imposing taxes, not only asked how much a man had but how he got his income. Those who worked their lands or conducted mines or factories were to be treated with more consideration than those who owed their incomes to the efforts of others. In this way Lloyd George introduced a new principle of taxation, which was vigorously denounced by the Conservatives as revolutionary and socialistic.

pounds yearly were drained away from Ireland to pay absentee landlords, who rarely set foot in that country and took little or no interest in their tenants beyond the collection of their rents. If the tenants did not pay or could not pay, they were speedily evicted from their cottages and lands.

968. The Condition of the Peasantry. Throughout large portions of Ireland the peasants were constantly on the verge of starvation. Whenever there was a failure of the potato crop, on which from one third to one half the population depended for food, there were scenes of misery in Ireland which defy description. This was the case in the "Black Year of Forty-Seven," when the potato crop failed almost entirely and thousands died of starvation in spite of the relief afforded by the government. It was in the midst of this terrible famine that the stream of emigration began to flow toward America. Within half a century four million emigrants left the shores of Ireland for other countries, principally the United States, taking with them their bitter resentment against England.

969. Question of the Irish Catholics. When England became Protestant she attempted to convert Ireland, but the Irish remained faithful to the Pope and the Roman Catholic Church. The English then set up their own Church in Ireland, drove out the Catholic priests, and substituted for them clergymen of the Church of England. Although the Protestants in Ireland numbered only one in ten of the population, the Catholics were forced to support the English churchmen by paying tithes from their scanty incomes. When Catholics were admitted to Parliament in 1829 (§ 957) they set to work to get rid of the old system, and in 1869, after a long struggle of a generation, the English Church was disestablished in Ireland and the tithes abolished.

970. Irish Land Question. After gaining this important point the Irish members in Parliament, under the leadership of Parnell, forced the Irish land question on the attention of Parliament. From 1881 to 1903 a series of acts was passed securing the Irish peasants a fair rent and advancing them money to buy their holdings, if they wished, on condition that they would pay back



GLADSTONE ADDRESSING THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON THE HOME RULE BILL

Parliament Buildings

the money in installments to the government. It would seem as if the land question were gradually being adjusted.

971. Abolition of the Irish Parliament (1801). In addition to their demand for fair treatment in the matter of religion and land, the Irish leaders have unceasingly clamored for Home Rule. This question has divided the English Parliament for years. Until 1801 Ireland had maintained a separate parliament. The Act of Union of 1801, abolishing the Irish parliament, provided that Ireland should be represented by a hundred members in the House of Commons and by twenty-eight peers in the House of Lords. The Irish patriots resented this arrangement and commenced agitating for the restoration of their own parliament, for the English and Scotch had an overwhelming majority in the British Parliament. But nothing happened for many years.

972. The Home-Rule Question. At last Gladstone was won over and tried in 1886, and again in 1893, to secure Home Rule for Ireland, but failed. But after prolonged agitation on the part of the Irish members in Parliament a Home Rule bill was passed in 1914. But the opposition of the Protestants in Ulster, who feared that Home Rule would mean the predominance of the Irish Catholics, was so violent that the bill was never put into effect. The World War caused the matter to be deferred. Later Lloyd George called an Irish constitutional assembly to try to decide the matter, but nothing came of that. Then there were serious disorders in Ireland, and a republican party made its appearance—the Sinn Fein (pronounced *shin fane*)—who proposed to fight for the absolute independence of their country. The efforts of the English government to maintain order and repress rebellion led to many horrors and no signs of settlement.

IV. The British Empire: India

973. British India at the Opening of the Nineteenth Century. No other country has ever succeeded as England has in building up a vast empire scattered all over the globe. This is perhaps the most remarkable achievement of her government.

Turning first to India, the British rule, in the opening years of the nineteenth century, extended over the Bengal region and far up the Ganges valley beyond Delhi. A narrow strip along the eastern coast, the southern point of the peninsula, and the island of Ceylon had also been brought under England's control, and in the west she held Bombay and a considerable area north of Surat. Besides these regions, which the English administered directly, there were a number of princes over whom they exercised the right of "protection." The French and Portuguese possessions had declined into mere trading posts, and in the heart of India only one power disputed the advance of the English toward complete conquest (see map, p. 393).

Maharajah Sahiba of Bharatpur

974. The Mahratta Confederacy. This was a union of native princes, known as the Mahratta Confederacy. It occupied the region to the east of the Bombay coast, and the constant fighting that went on between its members continually disturbed the neighboring English possessions. At length England determined to suppress the Mahrattas and succeeded in conquering their territory in a serious war which took place in 1816–1818. A considerable part of their land was annexed, but some of the princes were permitted to continue their rule under English sovereignty—a position that they still occupy.

975. Conquest of the Gurkhas and Nepal. At about the same time England conquered the Gurkhas, who lived to the north along the great mountain range of the Himalayas. The Gurkhas were a menace, for they were wont to sweep down from the

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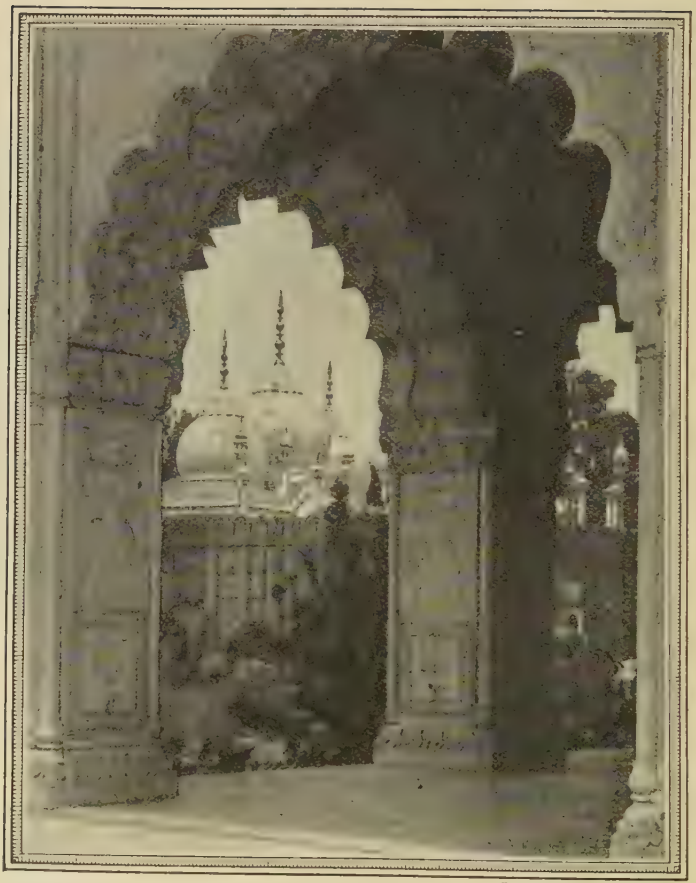
STREET OF THE THREE GATEWAYS, AHMEDABAD, INDIA



© Keystone View Company

THE PEARL MOSQUE, DELHI, INDIA

hills and destroy the villages of the defenseless peasants in the plain of the Ganges. They succeeded in founding a kingdom called Nepal, but they could not defend their realms against the English, who defeated them and forced them to cede to England a vast region extending up into the Himalayas to the borders of Tibet. Later the Gurkhas fought England's battles in the World War.

976. Annexation in Burma (1826–1885). While the British were busy with the Mahrattas and Gurkhas the Burmese were pressing into the Bengal districts from the east. Their ambitions were, however, checked by the British (1824–1826), and they were compelled to cede to the victors a considerable strip of territory along the east coast of the Bay of Bengal. Having thus made their first definite advance beyond the confines of India proper, the British, after twenty-five years of peace with the Burmese, engaged in a second war against them in 1852 and made themselves masters of the Irrawaddy valley and a long, narrow strip of coast below Rangoon, and, finally, conquered the whole country in another Burmese war in 1884–1885.

977. Conquest of the Sindh and Punjab Regions. On the northwestern frontier, in the valley of the Indus, where the soldiers of Alexander the Great had halted on their eastward march, there was a fertile region known as the Sindh, ruled over by an Ameer. On the ground that the Ameer's government was inefficient and corrupt the British invaded his territory in 1843 and added his domain to their Indian empire, thus winning a strong western frontier. This enterprise was scarcely concluded when a war broke out with the Sikhs in the northwest, which resulted in the addition of the great Punjab region farther up the valley of the Indus, northeast of Sindh, and the extension of the boundary of the Anglo-Indian empire to the borders of Afghanistan.

978. The Sepoy Rebellion (1857). England's conquests naturally caused great bitterness among the native princes who lost their thrones, and among the Mohammedans, who hated the Christians. In 1857 a terrible revolt of the Indian troops, known as sepoys, serving under British officers, took place. The sepoys

mutinied at Delhi and massacred the English inhabitants of the city; the inhabitants of Lucknow rose against the foreigners, and at Cawnpore a thousand British men, women, and children were cruelly massacred. Many of the sepoys remained loyal, however, and the English armies were able to put down the mutiny and to punish the rebels as cruelly as the mutineers had treated the people of Cawnpore.

979. India under the British Parliament. After the suppression of the sepoy rebellion the Parliament of Great Britain revolutionized the government of India. The administration of the peninsula was finally taken entirely out of the hands of the East India Company, which had directed it for more than two hundred and fifty years, and vested in the British sovereign (1858), to be exercised under parliamentary control. On January 1, 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India amid an illustrious gathering of Indian princes and British officials. King George V, as Emperor of India, now rules over about three hundred millions of Indian subjects inhabiting a domain embracing 1,773,000 square miles. The Secretary of State for India is responsible for Indian affairs, while the actual administration in India is conducted by a viceroy appointed by the British government.

980. Progress in India. The construction of railway lines has been pushed forward with great rapidity, so that the vast interior might be quickly reached by troops and an outlet opened for its crops of cotton, rice, wheat, indigo, and tobacco. Cotton mills are rising by the tombs of ancient kings, cities are increasing rapidly in population, and the foreign trade by sea has multiplied twenty-fold in the past seventy years. About eight hundred newspapers, printed in twenty-two languages, including Burmese, Sanskrit, and Persian, are published; educational institutions have been provided for nearly five million students. As a result, an industrial and educational revolution has been taking place in India. A Nationalist party has developed which demands home rule or even independence for India. The British government had a careful report drawn up on the whole matter and consented that Indian representatives be added to the councils of the Secretary for India and the Viceroy.

THE IMPERIAL DURBAR, INDIA

In a great ceremonial gathering, or *durbar*, the princes of India meet to offer allegiance to the British ruler upon his accession. The last imperial durbar was a scene of great magnificence, as this procession of bejeweled princes and elephants shows. The actual ceremony was upon too vast a scale to be reproduced in a single picture

An Elephant in India moving Timbers for a New Building

V. The British Empire: Canada and Australasia

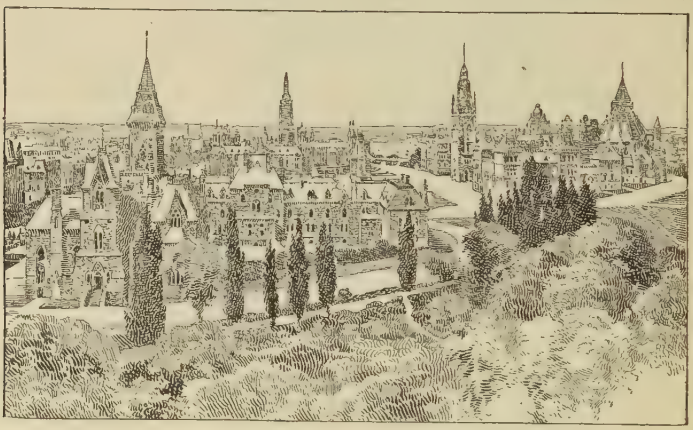
981. Population of Canada. In the western hemisphere Canada is the greatest of England's possessions. When it came into the hands of the English during the Seven Years' War, it was inhabited by some sixty-five thousand French colonists. Parliament permitted the people to continue to enjoy their Roman Catholic faith and their old laws. During the American Revolution many people from the United States fled to Canada, and, with the addition of immigrants from England, an English-speaking population has gradually been built up,—mostly outside of what is now the province of Quebec,—so that Canada now has eight million inhabitants.

982. Canada granted Self-government. In Upper Canada (now Ontario) these refugees, known as United Empire Loyalists, were in control of the government. They were mostly Tories. The Liberals became exasperated at the lack of responsible government, and a section of them took up arms in rebellion in 1837. In Lower Canada (now Quebec) rebellion broke out as well, due to irritation of the French at British rule. Both rebellions were easily crushed, but the British sent over an investigator, Lord Durham, whose report (1840), advocating self-government for the colonies, marks a turning point in the attitude of England toward the treatment of her possessions beyond the seas. From that time on it has been a matter of principle in British politics to give self-government to the colonies so far as can be done. This is one of the most important revolutions in the history of government. The British self-governing colonies even make their own treaties with other countries and are practically free nations.

983. The Dominion of Canada. In 1867 a federation of Canadian states was formed which included at first only Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. The great regions to the west and north were later developed by transcontinental railways and divided into provinces and territories and added to the union. So the Dominion of Canada is a federation somewhat like the United States. It is greater in area than the republic to the south

of it, and, though much of it lies very far north, there are vast plains growing millions of bushels of wheat in the Northwest, and much mineral wealth in its rocky and mountainous portions.

984. Canada's Independence of the Mother Country. England leaves Canada very free to go its own way. It is true that the English ruler is represented in Canada by a governor-general, who nominally appoints the members of the Senate. But these



THE PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA

Parliament Hill is beautifully situated beside the Ottawa River. The main building was burned, February, 1916

are really chosen mainly by the premier and the party in power and hold office for life. The House of Commons is the important body. It is freely elected by the people of the various Canadian provinces and governs Canada in the same way in which the British Commons governs Great Britain. When the World War broke out in 1914 Canada sided enthusiastically with the mother country and sent troops who fought heroically with the Allies against Germany.

985. Australia. In the southern Pacific Ocean England has control of the continent of Australia and of the islands of Tasmania and New Zealand. These exceed in extent the whole

United States; New Zealand alone is larger than the island of Great Britain. A great part of the continent of Australia lies in the southern temperate zone, but the northern region, near the equator, is parched by heat in summer, and the whole central portion suffers from a scarcity of water, which makes vast areas of the interior permanently uninhabitable unless some means of irrigation on a large scale can be introduced. The eastern and southern coasts have always been the chief centers of colonization. Melbourne, in the extreme south, lies in a latitude corresponding to that of Washington, St. Louis, and San Francisco in the northern hemisphere. The country possesses gold, silver, coal, tin, copper, and iron. Tasmania and New Zealand are more fortunate than Australia in the diversity of their scenery and the general fertility of their soil, while their climate is said to possess all the advantages of the mother country without her fog and smoke.

986. Colonizing of Australia. Australia and Tasmania were occupied in the eighteenth century by a scattered population of savages in a specially low stage of civilization; no European power had made any serious attempt to gain any foothold there until England in 1787 decided that Botany Bay—near the modern town of Sydney—would be an excellent and remote spot to which to send criminals of whom she wished to get rid. For many years convicts continued to be dispatched to Australia and Tasmania, but by the middle of the nineteenth century so many respectable English colonists had settled in New South Wales, West Australia, Queensland, and South Australia that they induced the English government to give up the practice of transporting criminals to these lands. The discovery of gold in 1851 led to a great rush of immigrants; but farming and sheep raising are the chief industries now.

987. The Commonwealth of Australia. The Australian colonies finally decided that they would prefer to unite in a union similar to that of Canada. Accordingly, in 1900 the British Parliament passed an act constituting the Commonwealth of Australia, to be composed of six states—New South Wales, Tasmania, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and West Australia.

The king is represented by a governor-general; the Federal parliament is composed of two houses—a Senate, consisting of six senators from each state, and a House of Representatives chosen in the same way as in the United States. This body has extensive power over commerce, railways, currency, banking, postal and telegraph service, marriage and divorce, and industrial arbitration. The system of secret voting, called the "Australian ballot," has spread from Australia to England and the United States. Its purpose is to discourage corruption by making it impossible for a political manager who has bribed men to vote for his side to be sure that they really fulfill their promises.

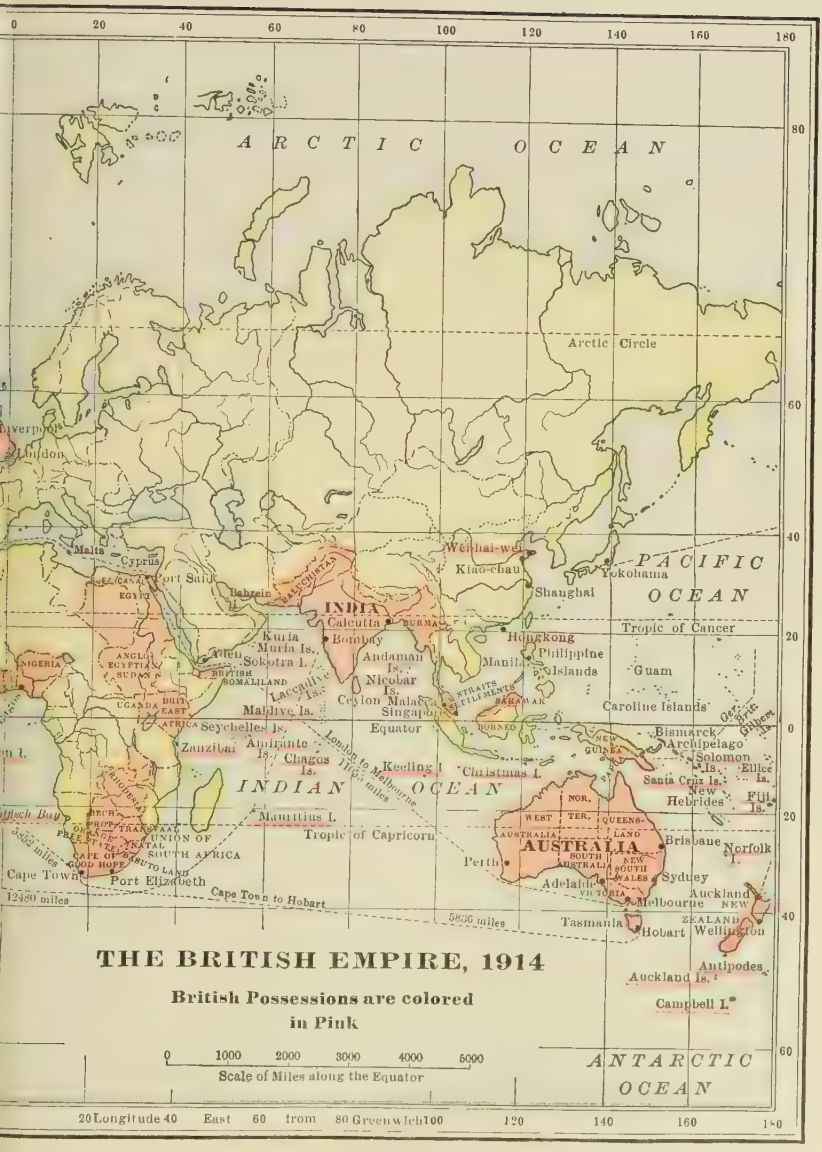
988. The Settlement of New Zealand. To the southeast of Australia, twelve hundred miles away, lie the islands of New Zealand, to which English pioneers began to go in the early part of the nineteenth century. In 1840 the English concluded a treaty with the native Maoris, by which the latter were assigned a definite reservation of lands on condition that they would recognize Queen Victoria as their sovereign. The English settlers established the city of Auckland on North Island, and twenty-five years later New Zealand became a separate colony, with the seat of government at Wellington.

989. Social Reform in New Zealand. New Zealand has recently become famous for its experiments in social reform. During the last decade of the nineteenth century the workingmen became very influential, and they have been able to carry through a number of measures which they believe to be to their advantage. Special courts are established to settle disputes between employers and their workmen; a pension law helps the poor in their old age.

VI. The British Empire: South Africa

990. England and the Boers. England's possessions in South Africa have caused her much more trouble than those in North America and Australasia. During the Napoleonic wars she seized the Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope. It was inhabited mainly by Dutch farmers, and the name "Boers" generally given

ARCTIC OCEAN
Grant Land
Fr. Patrick I.
Parry Islands
North Devon
GREENLAND
Baffin Sea
Davis Strait
Baffin Land
Banks Land
Victoria Land
Bering Strait
ALASKA
Arctic Circle
Dawson
Klondike
YUKON
TERRITORY
NORTH WEST
TERRITORY
Hudson Bay
Bering Sea
DOMINION OF CANADA
BRITISH COLUMBIA
ALBERTA
SASKATCHEWAN
MANITOBA
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
Queen Charlotte Islands
Vancouver I.
Victoria
Vancouver
Vancouver to Yokohama 4320 miles
Chicago
San Francisco
UNITED STATES
New York
Washington
Auckland 6730 miles
Liverpool to Quebec
GREAT BRI
AND IRELA
NEWFOUNDLAND
St. Johns
NOVA SCOTIA
Halifax
Liverpool
New York to Liverpool 3136 miles
Auckland to 10503 miles
Bermuda Is.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
New Orleans
Bahama Is.
Tropic of Cancer
Hawaii
Porto Rico
Leeward Is.
Windward Is.
Jamaica
Dominica
Barbados
Trinidad
BRITISH GUIANA
Panama
PACIFIC OCEAN
Palmyra
Fanning I.
Christmas I.
Phoenix Is.
Malden I.
Union Group
Samoan Is.
Manihiki Is.
Equator
Liverpool to Auckland 10503 miles
Tonga Is.
Cook Is.
Tropic of Capricorn
Pitcairn I.
Ducie I.
Kermadec Is.
Chatham I.
Valparaiso
Buenos Aires
Rio de Janeiro
Tristan da Cu
Magellan St.
Falkland Is.
South Georg
ANTARCTIC OCEAN
South Shetlands
Graham Land
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
40
80
60
40
20
0
20
40
60
100 Longitude 80 West 60 from 40 Greenwich 20



THE BRITISH EMPIRE, 1914

British Possessions are colored in Pink

0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000

Scale of Miles along the Equator

20 Longitude 40 East 60 from 80 Greenwich 100 120 140 160 180

to them is nothing but the Dutch word for "peasant." The English introduced their own language and carried through certain reforms, including the abolition of slavery in 1833. This the Boers did not like, and ten thousand of them moved northward across the Orange River into an unpromising region known now as the Orange Free State. During the succeeding years large numbers of them moved still farther north. This migration carried the Boers across the Vaal River, where they founded the Transvaal colony.

England for a time recognized the independence of both the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. The region seemed so desolate and unfruitful that Parliament thought it hardly worth while to attempt to keep control of it.

991. The Boers and the Uitlanders. In 1885, however, gold was discovered in the southern part of the Transvaal, and many foreigners (*Uitlanders*,—chiefly English) began to rush into the Dutch colony. They got along badly with the Boers, who lived a rude, wild life and had very little government. The Uitlanders arranged a conspiracy in 1895 to get the Transvaal constitution changed so that they would have a voice in the government. Cecil Rhodes, a man of vast wealth and the prime minister of Cape Colony, appears to have encouraged a Dr. Jameson to organize a raid into Transvaal with a view of compelling the Boers to let the Uitlanders share in the government. Jameson's raid failed, and the Boers captured the insurgents. Under Paul Kruger, the president of the Transvaal Republic, the Boers began to make military preparation to defend themselves and entered into an alliance with their neighbors of the Orange Free State to the south of them.

992. The Boer War (1899). The English now began to claim that the Boers would not be satisfied until they had got control of all the British possessions in South Africa. The Boers, with more reason, as it seemed to the rest of the world, declared that England was only trying to find an excuse for annexing the two republics which the Dutch farmers had built up in the wilderness after a long fight with the native savages. Finally, in 1899, the

weak Transvaal and the Orange Free State boldly declared war on England. The Boers made a brave fight, and the English managed the war badly. Many Englishmen thought it a shame to be fighting Paul Kruger and his fellow farmers, and the greater number of foreign nations were in sympathy with the Boers, but no one of the powers intervened. Finally England, after some humiliating defeats, was victorious and annexed the two Boer republics.

General Jan Christian Smuts

General Smuts became premier of the union of South Africa and used his influence against a movement to break away from Great Britain in 1921. He showed himself deeply concerned for the success of the League of Nations and expressed a high esteem for the rôle played by President Wilson in promoting its organization. (From a painting by Francis Dodd. Used by permission)

993. Formation of the South African Union. With a wise liberality toward the conquered Boers, Britain proceeded to give them self-government like other parts of the empire. In 1910 an act of Parliament formed a South African Union on the model of Canada and Australia. This includes the flourishing Cape Colony, with its great diamond mines about Kimberley, Natal to the northeast, and the two Boer republics—the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. These are now managed as a single federation by a representative of the British ruler and a parliament which makes laws for the whole union. When war broke out between England and Germany in 1914 the Germans expected the Boers to rise against England, but they were disappointed. The prime minister of the South African Union, General Botha, who had been the best Boer general in the war against England fifteen years before, not only

easily suppressed a rising of some of his old comrades but conquered German West Africa for the British Empire. The British look with much pride upon this tribute to their wisdom in granting freedom and self-government to the Boers.[1]

994. Other British Possessions in Africa. In addition to these colonies Great Britain has three enormous provinces in Africa occupied almost entirely by negroes. North of the Cape lies the Bechuanaland protectorate, inhabited by peaceful native tribes. Next beyond Bechuanaland and the Transvaal is Rhodesia, which was acquired through the British South Africa Company by two annexations in 1888 and 1898 and, with subsequent additions, brought under the protection of the British government. On the east coast, extending inland to the great lakes at the source of the Nile, lies the valuable ranching land of British East Africa. It is of especial value as controlling the southern approach to the Sudan and Egypt, which are so important to Britain.

QUESTIONS

I. What is cabinet government? How has it been connected with party government? How is the English government responsible to the people? Describe the ways in which Parliament failed to represent the nation prior to 1832. Outline the provisions of the Reform Bill of 1832. What did the Chartists want? How was the right to vote later extended?

II. Why is freedom of speech an important part of self-government? Trace the growth of religious liberty in England from the seventeenth century. Can you imagine any arguments for and against a stern criminal law? for keeping prisons horrible? What was the effect of factory work upon children? Why did economists oppose shorter hours of labor? When did England accept free trade? Describe the work of the Liberal government from 1906.

III. What were the sources of Ireland's misery? What were the conditions of the union of 1801? What are the obstacles in the way of Home Rule for Ireland? Describe conditions in Ireland today.

[1] There are about six millions of people in the South African Union, but a large portion of these are colored. The white population, including both those of English and those of Dutch descent, do not equal in number the inhabitants of Philadelphia.

IV. How did England conquer India (answer with the map)? What different races are there in India? What was the cause of the mutiny? How did Victoria become Empress of India? What have the British done for India? How is India governed today?

V. Outline the history of Canada in the nineteenth century. Why was the Durham report an important event in world history? How is Canada governed? How was Australia settled? When were the colonies united? What political experiments is New Zealand famous for?

VI. Sketch the early history of South Africa. How did the Transvaal originate? What right had the British to interfere in it? What was the settlement of the struggle in South Africa?

TABLE OF CHIEF BRITISH POSSESSIONS, 1914

In Europe: The United Kingdom, Gibraltar, and Malta.

In Asia: Aden, Perim, Sokotra, Kuria Muria Islands, Bahrein Islands, British Borneo, Ceylon, Cyprus, Hongkong, India and dependencies, Labuan, the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, Weihaiwei.

In Africa: Ascension Island, Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate, British East Africa, Cape of Good Hope, Nyasaland Protectorate, Zanzibar, Mauritius, Natal, Orange River Colony, Rhodesia, St. Helena, Tristan da Cunha, Seychelles, Somaliland, Transvaal Colony, Swaziland, West African Colonies of Nigeria, Northern Nigeria, Southern Nigeria, the Gold Coast, Gambia, Sierra Leone.

In North and South America: Bermudas, Canada, Falkland Islands, British Guiana, British Honduras, Newfoundland and Labrador, the West Indies, including Bahama, Barbados, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Trinidad, and Windward Islands.

In Australasia and the Pacific Islands: The Commonwealth of Australia (including New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, West Australia, and Tasmania), New Zealand, New Guinea (British), Fiji Islands, Tonga or Friendly Islands, and other minor islands in the Pacific.

Total area, 11,447,954 square miles. Population, 419,401,371.

CHAPTER XLII

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

I. Russia in the Early Nineteenth Century

995. Great Interest of Russian History. During the past century Russia has been coming into ever closer relations with western Europe. Although still a backward country in many respects, the works of some of her writers are widely read in foreign lands, especially those of Leo Tolstoy and Turgenieff. The music of Rubinstein and Tschaikowsky is as highly esteemed in London or New York as in Petrograd or Moscow. Even in the field of science some Russians are well known to their fellow workers in Europe and America. Numbers of educated Russians have, in the last twenty-five years, settled in the United States, while thousands of emigrants have fled to America, seeking relief from the hard conditions in their own country. The long fight against the despotism of the Tsar and then the tremendous social revolution introduced by the Bolsheviki served to attract the attention of all Europe and America to Russian affairs. It becomes, therefore, a matter of vital interest to follow the changes which have been taking place in that vast country since Napoleon's time.

996. Vast Extent of the Tsar's Dominions. When, in 1815, Tsar Alexander I returned to his capital after the close of the Congress of Vienna, he could view his position and recent achievements with pride. Alexander had participated in Napoleon's overthrow; he had succeeded in uniting the rulers of western Europe in the Holy Alliance (§ 845) which he had so much at heart, and he was, moreover, the undisputed and autocratic ruler of more than half of the continent of Europe, not to speak of vast reaches of northern Asia which lay beneath his scepter.

Under his dominion there were many races and peoples, differing in customs, language, and religion — Finns, Germans, Poles, Jews, Tartars, Armenians, Georgians, and Mongols.[1] The Russians themselves had colonized the southern plains of European Russia and had spread even into Siberia. They made up a large proportion of the population of the empire, and their language was everywhere taught in the schools and used by the officials.

In the time of Alexander I the great mass of the population still lived in the country, and more than half of them were serfs, as ignorant and wretched as those of France or England in the twelfth century.

997. Absolute Powers of the Tsar. Alexander I had inherited, as "Autocrat of all the Russias," a despotic power over his subjects similar to that to which Louis XIV laid claim. There was no thought of any responsibility to the people, and the tyranny which the Tsar's officials were able to exercise will become apparent as we proceed.

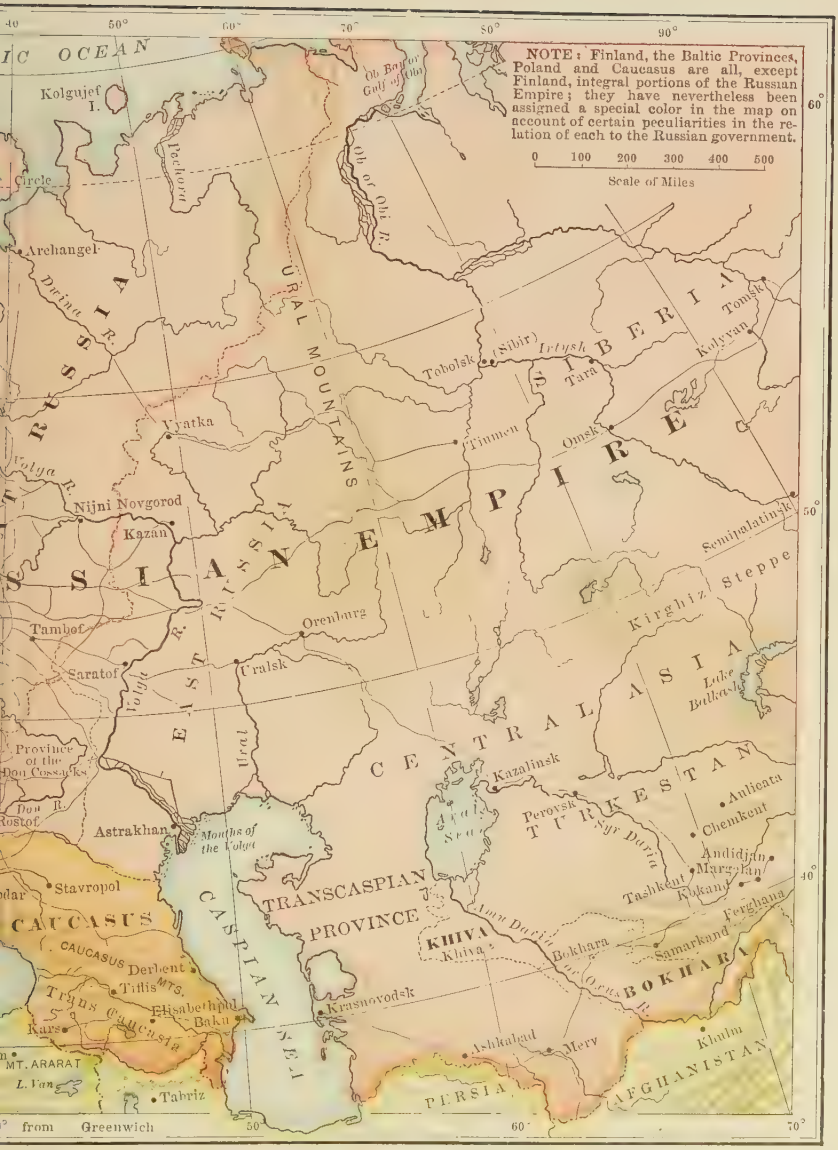
During his early years Alexander entertained liberal ideas, but after his return from the Congress of Vienna he became as apprehensive of revolution as his friend Metternich and threw himself into the arms of the "Old-Russian" party, which obstinately opposed the introduction of all Western ideas. The Tsar could not prevent, however, some of his more enlightened subjects from reading the new books from western Europe dealing with scientific discoveries and questions of political and social reform.

Alexander I died suddenly on December 1, 1825. The revolutionary societies seized this opportunity to organize a revolt known as the "December conspiracy." But the movement was badly organized; a few charges of grapeshot brought the insurgents to terms, and some of the leaders were hanged.

998. Polish Rebellion (1830–1831). Nicholas I never forgot the rebellion which inaugurated his reign, and he proved one of the

[1] The Cossacks, or light cavalry, who constitute so conspicuous a feature of the Russian army, were originally lawless rovers on the southern and eastern frontiers, composed mainly of adventurous Russians with some admixture of other peoples. Certain districts are assigned to them by the government, on the lower Don, near the Black Sea, the Urals, and elsewhere, in return for military service.

WESTERN PORTION OF THE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
BEFORE THE REVOLUTION OF 1917
Boundary of the Russian Empire
10°
0°
10°
20°
30°
60°
50°
40°
Shetland Islands
SCOTLAND
Glasgow
Edinburgh
NORTH SEA
ENGLAND
Hull
The Hague
London
Dover
HOLLAND
Amsterdam
Bremen
Hamburg
Cologne
Brussels
BELGIUM
LUXEMBURG
Paris
FRANCE
Seine R.
Loire R.
SWITZERLAND
Munich
Leipzig
Berlin
Dresden
GERMANY
Vienna
AUSTRIA
Budapest
HUNGARY
Milan
Genoa
Venice
Trieste
Adriatic Sea
ITALY
Rome
Naples
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
Christiania
Trondhjem
DENMARK
Copenhagen
Skager Rack
Kattegat
Malmö
Baltic Sea
Danzig
Memel
Tilsit
Königsberg
Thorn
Warsaw
POLAND
Lodz
Breslau
Gulf of Bothnia
Vasa
Tammerfors
Åbo
Helsingfors
Stockholm
Gulf of Finland
Kronstadt
Reval
BALTIC PROVINCES
Libau
Riga
Pskof
Grodno
Vilna
Minsk
Dwinsk
LITHUANIA
Volhynia
Podolia
Lublin
Kief
Chernigof
Kharkof
Poltava
Ekaterinoslaf
SOUTH RUSSIA
Kishenef
Odessa
Akkerman
Crimea
Sebastopol
Balaklava
BLACK SEA
ROUMANIA
Bukharest
Belgrade
SERVIA
MONTENEGRO
Cettinge
BULGARIA
Sofia
EASTERN RUMELIA
Philippopolis
TURKEY
Salonica
Bosporus
Constantinople
Sea of Marmora
Dardanelles
ASIATIC TURKEY
ASIA MINOR
GREECE
Athens
Ægean Sea
Longitude


NOTE: Finland, the Baltic Provinces, Poland and Caucasus are all, except Finland, integral portions of the Russian Empire; they have nevertheless been assigned a special color in the map on account of certain peculiarities in the relation of each to the Russian government.
0 100 200 300 400 500
Scale of Miles
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
SIBERIA
CENTRAL ASIA
CAUCASUS
TURKESTAN
BOKHARA
KHIVA
TRANSCASPIAN PROVINCE
PERSIA
AFGHANISTAN
Kolgujef I.
Circle
Archangel
Dwina R.
Petchora
Ob, Bay of
Gulf of Ob
Ob or Obi R.
URAL MOUNTAINS
Tobolsk
(Sibir)
Irtysh
Tara
Tomsk
Kolyvan
Omsk
Tiumen
Vyatka
Volga R.
Nijni Novgorod
Kazan
Semipalatinsk
Kirghiz Steppe
Lake Balkash
Orenburg
Tambof
Saratof
Tsaritsin
Uralsk
Ural R.
Province of the Don Cossacks
Don R.
Rostof
Astrakhan
Mouths of the Volga
Kazalinsk
Aral Sea
Perovsk
Syr Darya
Amu Darya
Amlieata
Chemkent
Andidjan
Marghilan
Tashkent
Khokand
Ferghana
Samarkand
Bokhara
Khiva
Stavropol
Derbent
Tiflis
MTS.
Tryus Caucasus
Elisabethpol
Baku
Kars
Krasnovodsk
Ashkabad
Merv
Khulm
MT. ARARAT
L. Van
Tabriz
Caspian Sea
from Greenwich
40°
50°
60°
70°
80°
90°

THE GRAND THEATER, MOSCOW, RUSSIA

most despotic of all the long list of autocratic rulers. His harsh measures speedily produced a revolt in Poland. Europe made no response to Poland's appeals for assistance, and the Tsar's armies soon crushed the rebellion with great cruelty. To all intents and purposes Poland became henceforth merely a Russian province, governed, like the rest of the empire, from St. Petersburg.[1]

999. Stern Efforts of Nicholas to check Liberalism. The Tsar adopted strong measures to check the growth of liberalism. His officials sought to prevent in every way the admission into Russia of Western ideas. Books on religion and science were carefully examined by the police or the clergy; foreign works containing references to politics were either confiscated or the objectionable pages were blotted out by the censors. Private letters were opened, even when there was no reason to suspect their writers. It may be said that, except for a few short intervals of freedom, this whole system continued down to the revolution of 1917.

II. Russia and the Near-Eastern Question; the Crimean War

1000. The Turkish or Near-Eastern Question.[2] Before the end of his reign Nicholas I became involved in a war with England and France over the perennial Turkish question. Russia had always been anxious to seize portions of the Sultan's possessions and was eager in time to get control of Constantinople and the Dardanelles. Austria, England, and France, on the other hand, were, not unnaturally, hotly opposed to this ambition, and the rivalries and struggles of the European powers over the remains of the once wide realms of the Turkish Sultan constitute an important chapter in the history of the nineteenth century and led finally to the World War of 1914.

[1] Thirty years later, in 1863, the Poles made another desperate attempt to free themselves from the yoke of Russia, but failed. Napoleon III refused to assist them, and Bismarck supported the Tsar in the fearful repression which followed.

[2] The Near-Eastern question concerning the Turkish realms is to be distinguished from the Far-Eastern question of European claims in China and the Orient.

Both the French and the English suffered great hardship and losses. Russia was, however, disheartened by the sufferings of her own soldiers, the inefficiency and corruption of her officials, and the final loss of the mighty fortress of Sebastopol. She saw, moreover, that her near neighbor, Austria, was about to join her enemies. The new Tsar, Alexander II, therefore, consented in 1856 to the terms of a treaty drawn up at Paris.

This treaty recognized the independence of the Ottoman Empire and guaranteed its territorial integrity. The "Sublime Porte" was taken into the family of European powers, from which it had hitherto been excluded as a barbarous government, and the other powers agreed not to interfere further with the domestic affairs of Turkey. In short, Turkey was preserved and strengthened by the intervention of the powers as a bulwark against Russian encroachment into the Balkan peninsula, but nothing was really done to reform the Turkish administration or to make the lot of the Christian subjects more secure.

III. The Freeing of the Serfs; Terrorism

1007. Accession of Alexander II (1855). Nicholas had died in the midst of the reverses of the Crimean War, leaving to his son, Alexander II, the responsibility of coming to terms with the enemy and then, if possible, strengthening Russia by reducing the political corruption and bribery which had been revealed by the war and by improving the lot of the people at large.

1008. Situation of the Russian Serfs. About nine tenths of all the agricultural land in the empire was in the hands of the nobility. Nearly one half of the Tsar's subjects were serfs whose bondage and wretched lives seemed to present an insurmountable barrier to general progress and prosperity. The landlord commonly reserved a portion of his estate for himself and turned over to his serfs barely enough to enable them to keep body and soul together. They usually spent three days in the week cultivating their lord's fields. The serf was viewed as scarcely more than a beast of burden.

From time to time the serfs, infuriated by the hard conditions imposed upon them, revolted against their lords. Under Nicholas I over five hundred riots had occurred, and these seemed to increase rather than decrease, notwithstanding the vigilance of the police.

1009. Emancipation of the Serfs (March, 1861). Alexander II, fearful of more serious uprisings of the peasants, undertook the difficult task of freeing forty millions of his subjects

House in Village near Petrograd

from serfdom. After much discussion he issued an emancipation proclamation, March 3, 1861, on the eve of the great Civil War which was to put an end to negro slavery in the United States. Although the decree abolished all rights of the lords over the serfs, the peasants still remained bound to the land, for they were not permitted to leave their villages without a government pass. The landlords surrendered a portion of their estates to the peasants, but this did not become the property of *individual* owners, but was vested in the *village community* as a whole.

1010. Emancipation a Hardship. The government dealt very generously with the landlords, as might have been anticipated.

deal naturally depended on the position taken by England, which was in alliance with Turkey. Gladstone, then leader of the Liberals, urged his countrymen to break the unholy alliance between England and "the unspeakable Turk." But the party in power was fearful that the Slavic rebels in the Sultan's dominions, if they gained independence, might ally themselves with England's enemy, Russia, and that in the interest of English trade any movement should be resisted which might destroy the power of the Sultan, who was less likely than Russia to interfere with England's Eastern commerce.

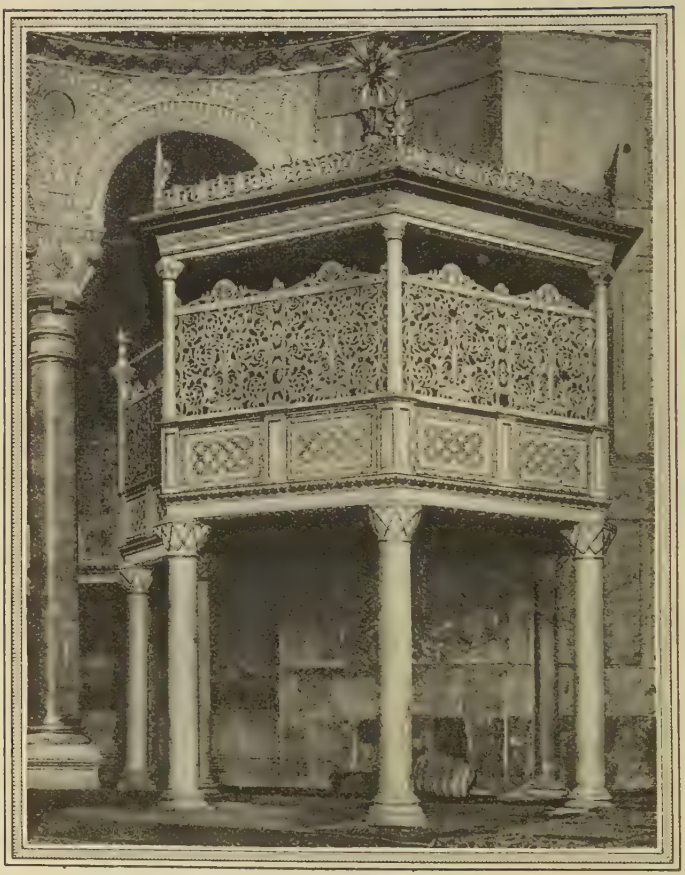
1016. Russia defeats the Turks. The negotiations of the powers having come to nothing, Russia determined, in 1877, to act alone. Although the Turks fought well, Russia was victorious, and in 1878 a Russian army entered Adrianople. The Sultan was forced to sign a treaty with the Tsar and to recognize the independence of Serbia, Montenegro, Rumania, and Bulgaria.

1017. The Berlin Congress in 1878. England and Austria had naturally serious objections to this treaty which increased the influence of Russia in the Balkan Peninsula. They accordingly forced Tsar Alexander II to submit the whole matter to the consideration of a general European congress at Berlin. After prolonged and stormy sessions the Congress of Berlin agreed that Serbia, Rumania, and little Montenegro should be regarded as entirely independent of Turkey, and that Bulgaria should also be independent, except for the payment of a tribute to the Sultan. Bosnia, where the insurrection had begun, and the small province of Herzegovina were practically taken from the Sultan and turned over to Austria to be occupied and administered by her. Russia was given a tract east of the Black Sea. A few years after the congress Bulgaria quietly annexed the neighboring province of Eastern Rumelia, thus adding to her own importance and further decreasing what little remained of Turkey in Europe.

1018. Accession of Alexander III. The reign of Alexander III (1881–1894), son and successor of Alexander II, was a period of quiet, during which little progress seemed to be made.

ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE, BUILT BY JUSTINIAN A.D. 532–537

The gigantic dome is one hundred and eighty-three feet high. Since the capture of Constantinople by the Turks (A.D. 1453) the vast church has served as a Mohammedan mosque



INTERIOR OF MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA, SHOWING WHERE THE SULTAN SITS IN PRIVATE WORSHIP

Occasional protests were answered by imprisonment, flogging, or exile, for Alexander III and his intimate advisers believed quite as firmly and religiously in autocracy as Nicholas I had done.

1019. The Industrial Revolution overtakes Russia. It became increasingly difficult, however, to keep Russia "frozen," for during the last quarter of the nineteenth century the spread of democratic ideas had been hastened by the coming of the steam

HARBIN, A CITY ON THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY

Cities have sprung up along the great Russian railway just as they did along the transcontinental lines in the United States or Canada. This Western-looking town is northeast of Peking, in the farming country of Manchuria, nominally a part of the Chinese Republic but in reality held by Russia

engine, the factory, and the railroad, all of which served to unsettle the humdrum agricultural life which the great majority of the people had led for centuries.

The liberation of the serfs, with all its drawbacks, favored the growth of factories, for the peasants were sometimes permitted to leave their villages for the manufacturing centers which were gradually growing up. If Napoleon could have come once more to Moscow in 1912, he would not have recognized the city which met his gaze in 1812. It had become one of the chief centers of

the Russian textile industries, and the sound of a thousand looms and forges announced the creation of a new industrial world.

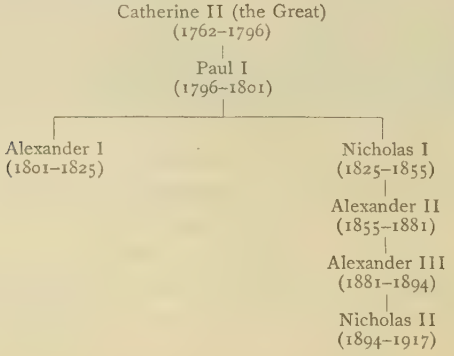
1020. The Trans-Siberian Railroad. Along with this industrial development went the construction of great railway lines, built largely by the government with money borrowed from capitalists in western Europe (see map, p. 554). The greatest of all Russian railway undertakings was the Trans-Siberian road, which was rendered necessary for the transportation of soldiers and military supplies to the eastern boundary of the empire. Communication was established between St. Petersburg and the Pacific in 1900, and a branch line southward to Port Arthur was soon finished.[1] One could, before the World War, travel with few changes of cars from Havre to Vladivostok, via Paris, Cologne, Berlin, Warsaw, Moscow, Irkutsk, on Lake Baikal, and Harbin, a distance of seventy-three hundred miles.

V. The Russian Revolution under Nicholas II

1021. Nicholas II dispels the Hopes of the Liberals. When Nicholas II succeeded his father, Alexander III, in 1894,[2] he was but twenty-six years old, and there was some reason to hope that he would favor reform. Nicholas, however, quickly dispelled any illusions which his more liberal subjects entertained.

[1] See map, p. 572.

[2] Genealogical table of the Tsars:



The repressive policy of this despotic government became worse as time went on. In 1902 an unpopular minister of the interior had been assassinated, and the Tsar had appointed a still more unpopular man in his place, namely Plehve, who was notorious for his success in hunting down those who criticized the government.

1022. Massacres of the Jews. Plehve connived at the persecution of those among the Tsar's subjects who ventured to disagree with the doctrines of the Russian official Church, to which every Russian was supposed to belong. The Jews suffered especially. There were massacres at Kishineff and elsewhere in 1903 which horrified the Western world and drove hundreds of thousands of Jews to foreign lands, especially to the United States. There is good reason to believe that Plehve actually arranged and directed these massacres.

NICHOLAS II

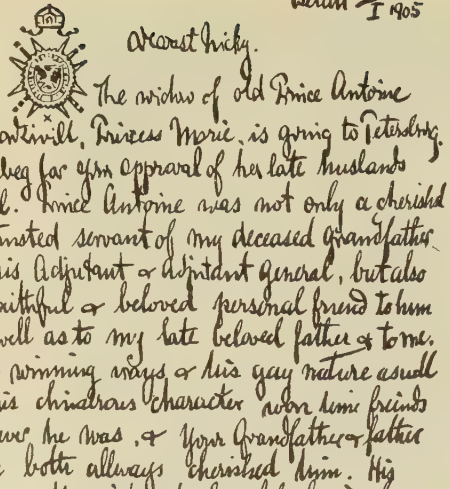
1023. The Constitutional Liberal Groups. Plehve was mistaken, however, in his belief that all the trouble came from a handful of fanatics. Among those who detested the cruel and corrupt government were the professional men, the university professors, the enlightened merchants and manufacturers, and the public-spirited portion of the nobility. These, although they were not organized into a party, came to be known as the Constitutional Democrats. They hoped for a parliament elected by the people, which would improve the lot of the peasants and the workingmen. They also urged freedom of speech and of the press, the right to hold public meetings for the discussion of questions, and the abolition of the secret police and of religious persecution.

1024. The Social Democrats. The Social Democrats were followers of Karl Marx and looked forward to the time when the workingmen would assume control of the government and manage the land, the factories, and the mines in the interest of the whole population rather than for the benefit chiefly of the rich who owned them.

1025. The Socialist Revolutionary Party. In contrast with these were those Russian agitators who belonged to the Socialist Revolutionary party, which was well organized and was responsible for many acts of violence during the years of the revolution. They maintained that it was right to make war upon the government, which was oppressing them and extorting money from the people to fill the pockets of dishonest officeholders. Its members selected their victims from the most notoriously cruel among the officials, and after a victim had been killed they usually published a list of the offenses which had cost him his life. Lists of those selected for assassination were also prepared, after careful consideration, by their executive committee. They did not practice, or in any way approve of, indiscriminate assassination, as is sometimes supposed.

1026. Disastrous War with Japan (1904–1905). The more Plehve sought to stamp out all protest against the Tsar's government, the more its enemies increased, and at last, in 1904, the open revolution may be said to have begun. On February 5 of that year a war commenced with Japan, which was due to Russia's encroachments in Korea and her evident intention of permanently depriving China of Manchuria. The liberals attributed the conflict to bad management on the part of the Tsar's officials, and declared it to be inhuman and contrary to the interests of the people.

Whatever the cause, disaster was the outcome. The Japanese defeated the Russians in Manchuria in a series of terrific conflicts south of Mukden. In one long battle on the Sha-ho River sixty thousand Russians perished. Their fleets in the East were annihilated, and on January 1, 1905, Port Arthur fell, after one of the most terrible sieges on record (§ 1054).



Berlin 15/I 1905

Dearest Nicky.

The widow of old Prince Antoine Radziwill, Princess Marie, is going to Petersburg to beg for your approval of her late husbands will. Prince Antoine was not only a cherished & trusted servant of my deceased grandfather as his Adjutant & Adjutant General, but also a faithful & beloved personal friend to him as well as to my late beloved father & to me. His winning ways & his gay nature as well as his chivalrous character won him friends wherever he was, & Your Grandfather & father have both allways cherished him. His wife was the intimate long-life friend of my late mother, & has been made testatrix by her husband for his will. The whole future of her children & family rests on the fact of your kind approval of the will, & I venture preparation & even learnt your language & will in no way be of any hindrance to your generals, as he is a quiet man, as the army is large & powerful I think that it does not matter if he goes, so I venture again to ask whether you can permit him to go.

With excuses for bothering you with all these matters, but they are better arranged between ourselves.

& best love to Alix

Remain

Your most affectionate cousin & friend

Willy.

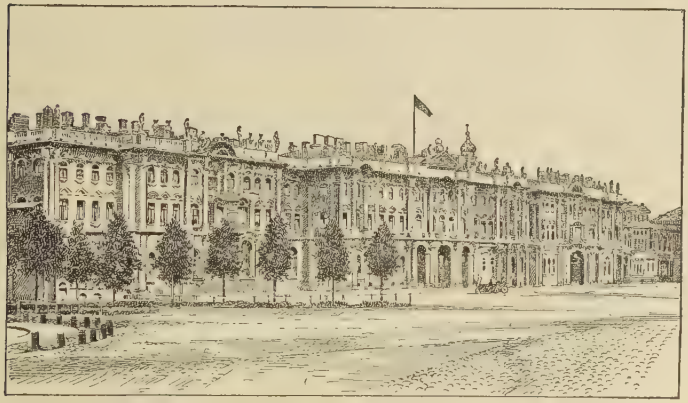
NOTE. The Kaiser and the Tsar carried on for many years an informal, nonofficial correspondence with one another in English. "Willy," who was nearly ten years the older, gives "Nicky" much advice.

Courtesy of the *Chicago Daily News*

OPENING AND CLOSE OF A WILLY AND NICKY LETTER

Tsar Nicholas II at the Opening of the First Duma

In Russia the crops failed, and the starving peasants burned and plundered the houses and barns of the nobles, arguing that if the buildings were destroyed, the owners could not come back and the Tsar's police could no longer make them their headquarters. Moreover, it became known that government officials had been stealing money which should have gone for rifles and supplies, and even funds of the Red Cross Society for aiding the wounded.



THE WINTER PALACE, PETROGRAD

The massacre on "Red Sunday" took place in front of this magnificent palace of the Tsar

1027. "Red Sunday" (January 22, 1905). On Sunday, January 22, 1905, a fearful event occurred. The workingmen of St. Petersburg had sent a petition to the Tsar and had informed him that on Sunday they would march to the palace humbly to pray him in person to consider their sufferings, since they had no faith in his officials or ministers. When Sunday morning came, masses of men, women, and children, wholly unarmed, attempted to approach the Winter Palace in the pathetic hope that the "Little Father," as they called the Tsar, would listen to their woes. Instead, the Cossacks tried to disperse them with their whips, and then the troops which guarded the palace shot and cut down hundreds and wounded thousands in a conflict which

continued all day. "Red Sunday" was, however, only the most impressive of many similar encounters between citizens and the Tsar's police and guards.

1028. Establishment of a Russian Parliament (Duma). Some months after this tragedy the Tsar at last yielded to public opinion and on August 19, 1905, agreed to summon a Russian parliament (*Duma*), which should thereafter give Russia's autocratic ruler *advice* in making the laws.

He and his advisers were soon pushed somewhat farther along the path of reform by a general strike which began in the following October. All the railroads stopped running; in all the great towns the shops, except those that dealt in provisions, were closed; gas and electricity were no longer furnished; the law courts ceased their duties; and even the apothecaries refused to prepare prescriptions until reforms should be granted.

The situation soon became intolerable, and on October 29 the Tsar announced that he had ordered "the government" to grant the people freedom of conscience, speech, and association, and to permit the classes which had been excluded in his first edict to vote for members of the Duma. Lastly, he agreed "to establish an immutable rule that no law can come into force without the approval of the Duma."

The Tsar's ministers would not coöperate with the Duma in any important measures of reform, and on June 21 Nicholas II declared that he was "cruelly disappointed" because the deputies had not confined themselves to their proper duties and had commented upon many matters which belonged to him. He accordingly dissolved the Duma, as he had a perfect right to do, and fixed March 5, 1907, as the date for the meeting of a new Duma.

1029. Atrocities and Disorder Continue. The revolutionists made an unsuccessful attempt in August to blow up the Tsar's chief minister in his country house and continued to assassinate governors and police officials. The bands known as the "Black Hundreds," on the other hand, went on massacring Jews and liberals, while the government established courts-martial to insure the speedy trial and immediate execution of revolutionists. In

the two months September and October, 1906, these courts summarily condemned three hundred persons to be shot or hanged. During the whole year some nine thousand persons were killed or wounded for alleged offenses against the government.

1030. Famine added to the Other Disasters. A terrible famine was afflicting the land at the end of the year, and it was discovered that a member of the Tsar's ministry had been stealing the money appropriated to furnish grain to the dying peasants. An observer who had traveled eight hundred miles through the famine-stricken district reported that he did not find a single village where the peasants had food enough for themselves or their cattle. In some places the peasants were reduced to eating bark and the straw used for their thatch roofs.

1031. The Dumas oppose the Tsar's Ministers. The Tsar continued to summon the Duma regularly, but so changed the suffrage that only the conservative sections of the nation were represented, and his officials did all they could to keep out liberal deputies. In spite of this the fourth Duma, elected in 1912, showed much independence in opposing the oppressive rule of the Tsar's ministers. Although parliamentary government was by no means won in Russia, many important reforms were achieved. The Tsar retained the title of "Autocrat of all the Russias" until he was forced to abdicate in 1917, and his officials went on violating all the principles of liberty and persecuting those who ventured to criticize the government.

QUESTIONS

I. What different peoples make up the Russian empire? Prepare a list of the Tsars of the nineteenth century with their dates. How did Alexander I rule? How had Poland been left by the Congress of Vienna? What resulted from its rebellion in 1831? State the arguments for and against autocracy in Russia. What did Nicholas I do to check the growth of liberalism?

II. Review the extension of the Turkish empire in Europe. Why did Russia wish to extend her influence in Turkey? How did Siberia and Greece gain their independence? What were the results of the Crimean War?

III. Describe the conditions of the serfs in Russia in the early nineteenth century. What were the results of the emancipation of the serfs? State the arguments of the terrorists.

IV. Describe the conditions of the people under the Sultan's rule. Why did the European powers fail to interfere in the Bulgarian atrocities? What settlement of the Balkan situation was made at the Berlin Congress? Describe the effects of the Industrial Revolution in Russia.

V. Describe the policy of repression favored by the Tsars of the nineteenth century. Describe the political parties under Nicholas II. What were the circumstances of the Russo-Japanese War? Describe the "Red Sunday." Why was the Russian parliament unsuccessful?

CHAPTER XLIII

HOW EUROPEAN HISTORY MERGED INTO WORLD HISTORY

I. The Growth of International Trade and Competition; Imperialism

1032. How the World has been brought together by Modern Business. As a result of the Industrial Revolution, Europe became a busy world of shops and factories, which produced much more than Europeans could use. So new markets were constantly sought in distant parts of the world. The trade with the Far East, which, as we have seen, led to the discovery of America, had grown in the nineteenth century to an enormous extent, scattering the wares of England, Germany, France, and Italy through China and India and the islands of the Pacific. The eagerness to secure world trade is one of the great facts of history, for it led the European nations to plant new colonies and to try to monopolize markets in Asia and Africa and wherever else they could. This business rivalry fostered jealousies and conflicts between the nations at home, and it was one of the causes of the World War.

1033. The Steamship. The prodigious expansion of commerce was made possible by the discovery that steam could be used to carry goods cheaply and speedily to all parts of the earth. Steamships and railways have made the world one great market place.

The problem of applying steam to navigation had long occupied inventors, but the honor of making the steamship a success commercially belongs to Robert Fulton. In the spring of 1807 he launched his *Clermont* at New York, and in the autumn of that year the "new water monster" made its famous trip to Albany. Transoceanic steam navigation began in 1819 with the voyage of the steamer *Savannah* from Savannah to Liverpool, which took twenty-five days, sails being used to help the engine. The *Great*

Western, which startled the world in 1838 by steaming from Bristol to New York in fifteen days and ten hours, was a ship of 1378 tons, 212 feet long, with a daily consumption of 36 tons of coal.[1] A commercial map of the world today shows that the globe is crossed in every direction by definite routes which are followed by innumerable freight and passenger steamers passing regularly from one port to another, and few of all these thousands of ships are as small as the famous *Great Western*.

1034. The Suez Canal completed in 1869. The East and the West have been brought much nearer together by the piercing of the Isthmus of Suez, which formerly barred the way from the Mediterranean Sea to the Indian Ocean. This enterprise was carried out under the direction of the great French engineer Ferdinand de Lesseps. After ten years of work the canal was opened to traffic in November, 1869.

1035. Panama Canal. The construction of a canal through the Isthmus of Panama was undertaken in 1881 by a French company organized by De Lesseps; but the company failed, and in 1902 the Congress of the United States authorized the President to purchase for forty million dollars the property in which the French investors had sunk so much money. Arrangements with the republic of Colombia for the construction of the canal by the United States having come to naught, the state of Panama, through which the line of the proposed canal passes, seceded from Colombia in 1903, and its independence was immediately recognized by President Roosevelt. A treaty in regard to the canal zone was then duly concluded with the new republic, and after some delays the work of the French company was resumed by the United States and practically completed in 1915.

1036. Development of Railroads. Just as the gigantic modern steamship has taken the place of the schooner for the rapid trade of the world, so, on land, the merchandise which used to be

[1] Compare this with the *Lusitania*, which had a tonnage of 32,500 tons, engines of 68,000 horse power, was 785 feet long, and carried a supply of over 5000 tons of coal for its journey across the Atlantic, which lasted less than five days. Later vessels have been constructed of over 50,000 tons.

dragged by means of horses and oxen or carried in slow canal boats is being transported in long trains of capacious cars, each of which holds as much as fifteen or twenty large wagons. The story of the locomotive, like that of the spinning machine or steam engine, is the history of many experiments and their final combination by a successful inventor, George Stephenson.

In 1814 Stephenson built a small locomotive, known as *Puffing Billy*, which was used at the mines, and in 1825, with the authorization of Parliament, he opened between Stockton and Darlington, in the northern part of England, a line for the conveyance of passengers and freight. About this time a road was being projected between Liverpool and Manchester, and in an open competition, in which five locomotives were entered, Stephenson's *Rocket* was chosen for the new railroad, which was formally opened in 1830. This famous engine weighed about seven tons and ran at an average speed of thirteen miles an hour—a small affair when compared with the giant locomotive of our day, weighing a hundred tons and running fifty miles an hour. Within fifteen years trains were running regularly between Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, and London, and at the close of the century Great Britain had twenty-two thousand miles of railway carrying over a billion passengers annually.

A Locomotive built by George Stephenson

1037. Spread of Railways. The first railway was opened in France in 1828 and the first in Germany in 1835, but the development of the system was greatly hindered by the territorial divisions which then existed. Europe was before the World War

bound together by a network of over two hundred thousand miles of railway, and railway construction was rapidly advancing in Africa and Asia, preparing cheap outlets for the products of Western mills and mines. As we have seen, the Trans-Siberian road connected Europe overland with the Pacific (§ 1020), and Russia also pushed lines southward toward Persia and Afghanistan; British India has over thirty-five thousand miles, and the importance of the new railroads in China and Turkey became so great as to involve rival European nations and so contribute a cause of war.

1038. The Possibility of World "News." Quite as essential to the world market as railway and steamship lines are the easy and inexpensive means of communication afforded by the post, telephone, telegraph, and cable. The English "penny post" is now so commonplace as no longer to excite wonder, but to men of Frederick the Great's time it would have seemed impossible. Until 1839, in England the postage on an ordinary letter was a shilling for a short distance. In that year a reform measure long advocated by Rowland Hill was carried, establishing a uniform penny post throughout Great Britain. Other European countries followed the example of Great Britain in reducing postage, and before long a letter could be sent almost anywhere in the world for five cents.

1039. Telegraph and Telephone Lines. No less wonderful is the development of the telegraph system. Cables have been laid under the ocean, connecting all countries. Distant and obscure places in Africa and Asia have been brought into close touch with one another and with Europe. China now has lines connecting all the important cities of the republic and affording direct overland communication between Peking and Paris. In October, 1907, Marconi established regular communication across the Atlantic by means of the wireless system of telegraphy discovered some years before; and now the wireless telephone can carry the voice from Washington to Paris.

1040. Competition for Foreign Markets. The Industrial Revolution which enabled Europe to produce far more goods

THE EUROPEAN ADVANCE (TO 1914) IN ASIA
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700
SCALE OF MILES
British Territory
Russian Territory
French Territory
Railroads
German Territory
Portuguese Territory
United States Territory
Proposed Railroads
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS
Longitude 50° East from 60° Greenwich
EUROPEAN RUSSIA
TURKISH EMPIRE
PERSIA
ARABIA
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN
TURKESTAN
RUSSIAN TURKESTAN
INDIA
AFRICA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
ARABIAN SEA
RED SEA
Russian Sphere
British Sphere
St. Petersburg
Moscow
Berlin
Warsaw
Constantinople
Trans-Caspian Prov.
Aral Sea
Tiflis
Baku
Tabriz
Teheran
Bagdad
Basra
Koweit
Yezd
Kushk
Herat
Kabul
Merv
Bokhara
Samarkand
Khiva
Tashkend
Khokand
Tchardjui
Akmolinsk
Tobolsk
Delhi
Simla
Sindh
Khelat
Bender Abbas
Muskat
Medina
Mekka
Aden
Gulf of Aden
Persian Gulf
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Damascus
Jerusalem
Port Said
Alexandria
Cyprus
Mediterranean Sea
Suez Canal
Danube R.
Black Sea
Caucasus Mts.
Bahrein Is. (Brit.)
Kuria Muria Is. (Brit.)
Sokotra I.
Diu (Port.)
Bombay
Goa (Port.)

90
100°
110°
120°
130°
140°
150°
Okhotsk
SEA OF OKHOTSK
SAKHALIN
KURIL IS.
Lena R.
Yeniseisk
Krasnoyarsk
L. Baikal
Barnaul
Irkutsk
STANOVOI RANGE
Amur R.
Khabarovsk
MANCHURIA
Harbin
Kirin
Vladivostok
Hakodate
SEA OF JAPAN
HONDO
Yokohama
Kobe
Nagasaki
Shimonoseki
Urga
MONGOLIA
Desert of Gobi
Kalgan
Liaoyang
Tie Pass
Mukden
Port Arthur (Russ.)
Dalny
Kiaochau (Ger.)
Weihaiwei (Brit.)
YELLOW SEA
Peking
Tientsin
Yellow R.
CHINA
Singan
Nanking
Shanghai
Hankau
Yangtze R.
EAST CHINA SEA
Nagasaki
Fuchau
Amoy
FORMOSA
PACIFIC OCEAN
Lassa
BHUTAN
Canton
Macao (Port.)
Hongkong (Brit.)
Kwangchauwan (Fr.)
TONGIN
Hanoi
Gulf of Tonkin
HAINAN
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS (to U. S.)
Manila
Calcutta
Mandalay
BURMA
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
BAY OF BENGAL
Rangoon
Bangkok
SIAM
Cambodia
Saigon
Sulu Sea
ANDAMAN IS.
Gulf of Siam
COCHIN CHINA
CONDORE
NORTH BORNEO
CELEBES SEA
CELEBES
NICOBAR IS.
Penins
SARAWAK
BORNEO
STRAITS SETTLEMENTS
Singapore
90°
110°
120°
100°

than it could sell in its own markets, and the rapid transportation which permitted producers to distribute their commodities over the whole surface of the globe, combined to produce a keen competition for foreign markets, as we have seen. The European nations secured the control of practically all the territory occupied by defenseless peoples in Africa and Asia, and introduced Western ideas of business into China and Japan, where steamships now ply the navigable rivers and railroads are being rapidly built.

1041. Foreign Investments. The process of colonization and of Westernizing the oriental peoples was further hastened by European and American capitalists investing in railroads, mines, and oil wells in backward countries. At the opening of the twentieth century Great Britain alone had about ten billion dollars invested abroad; one fifth of Russian industrial enterprises were financed by foreigners, who were also to a considerable extent constructing the railroads in China. The Germans supplied the money for large banking concerns in Brazil, Buenos Aires, and Valparaiso, which in turn stimulated industry and the construction of railways.

1042. Imperialism in its Various Forms. These two powerful forces—factories seeking markets for their goods and capital seeking investment—shaped the foreign and commercial policies of every important European country. They alone explain why the great industrial nations embarked on a policy of so-called *imperialism*, which means a policy of adding distant territories for the purpose of controlling their products, getting the trade with the natives, and investing money in the development of natural resources. Sometimes this imperialism took the form of outright annexation at the desire of the natives, such as the acquisition of Hawaii by the United States; again, it assumed the form of a "protectorate," which is a declaration on the part of a nation to the effect that "this is our particular piece of land; we are not intending to take all the responsibility of governing it just now; but we want other nations to keep out, for we may annex it sooner or later." Sometimes imperialism went no farther than the securing of concessions or privileges in undeveloped countries, such as foreigners obtained in China or citizens of the United States in Mexico.

1043. The Missionary as an Agent of Imperialism. The way for imperialism was smoothed by the missionaries. There have always been ardent Christians ready to obey the command "Go ye into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature" (Mark xvi, 15). No sooner was a new country brought to the attention of Europeans than missionaries flocked thither along with the traders and soldiers.

Missionaries not only have spread the knowledge of the Christian religion, but have carried with them modern scientific ideas and modern inventions. They have reduced to writing the languages of peoples previously ignorant of the existence of an alphabet. Their physicians have introduced rational methods of treating the sick, and their schools have given an education to millions who without them would have been left in complete barbarism. Finally, they have encouraged thousands of Japanese, Chinese, and representatives of other peoples to visit Europe and America and thus prepare themselves to become apostles of Western ideas among their fellows. The missionaries have also created a demand for Western goods and opened the way for trade.

II. Relations of Europe with China and Japan

1044. Early Knowledge of China. The relations of Europe to China extend back into ancient times. Some of the Roman emperors, including Marcus Aurelius, sent embassies to the Chinese monarchs, and in the Middle Ages some missionaries labored to introduce Christianity into China. It was not, however, until after the opening of the water route around the Cape of Good Hope that European trade with China became important. Early in the sixteenth century Portuguese merchants appeared in Chinese harbors, offering Western merchandise in exchange for tea and silks. In 1537 the Portuguese rented a trifling bit of land in Macao, off Canton—a post which they hold today.

1045. How European Business Men forced their Way into China. However, the Chinese did not welcome foreign interference. Their officials regarded the European merchants as

THE HEXAGONAL TEMPLE AT KIOTO

AVENUE OF STONE LANTERNS IN UYENO PARK, TOKYO

The gate in the background, a "torii," marks the entrance to a Shinto temple dedicated to the ancient gods of Japan, who were worshiped before the introduction of Buddhism in the seventh century of the Christian Era

barbarians. Nevertheless Dutch and English merchants flocked to Canton, the sole port at which the Chinese emperor permitted regular commerce with foreign countries.

When, in 1839, the Chinese government tried to put a stop to the opium trade, carried on with great profit by English merchants, and informed the British government that the traffic would have to be given up, the so-called "Opium War" broke out.

Junk and Steamship in the Harbor of Hongkong

The British, of course, with their modern means of warfare, were speedily victorious, and the Chinese were forced to agree, in the Treaty of Nanking, to pay a heavy indemnity, to cede to the British the island of Hongkong, which lies at the mouth of the Canton River, and to open to foreign commerce the ports of Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai on the same terms as Canton. The United States, taking advantage of this war, secured similar commercial privileges in 1844.

1046. The French and Others in China. From the Opium War to the present date China has been troubled with foreign

invasions. Napoleon III, supported by the English, waged war on China in 1858 and compelled the emperor to open new ports to European trade, including Tientsin, which was dangerously near the imperial city of Peking. Recently China has been thrown open to the foreign merchants to a very great extent, and the "concessions" demanded by the great powers have caused some fear that the whole country might be divided among them.

1047. The Extraordinary History of Japan. To the northeast of China lies a long group of islands which, if they lay off the eastern coast of North America, would extend from Maine to Georgia. This archipelago, comprising four main islands and some four thousand smaller ones, is the center of the Japanese Empire. Fifty years ago Japan was still almost completely isolated from the rest of the world; but now, through a series of extraordinary events, she has become one of the conspicuous members of the family of nations. Her people, who are somewhat more numerous than the inhabitants of the British Isles, resemble the Chinese in appearance and owe to China the beginnings of their culture and their art.

1048. Commodore Perry and the Modernizing of Japan. During the sixteenth century Dutch and English traders carried on some business in Japan, but they, as well as the missionaries, became disliked and were all driven out. For nearly two centuries Japan cut herself off almost entirely from the outer world. In 1853 Commodore Perry landed in Yokohama and asked that United States ships be allowed to dispose of their cargoes at one or two ports at least. This was allowed, and soon other powers got the right to trade with Japan, and the Japanese decided that they must acquaint themselves with European science and inventions if they hoped to protect themselves against European encroachments. In 1871 feudalism was abolished, serfdom was done away with, and the army and navy were rapidly remodeled on a European pattern. In 1889 a constitution was established providing for a parliament. Factories were built, several thousand miles of railroad were constructed, and Japan was pretty thoroughly modernized within a generation.

THE GREAT WALL OF NORTHERN CHINA

This wall, fifteen to thirty feet high, fifteen to twenty-five feet broad, and fourteen hundred miles long was built in the third century B.C., and part in the fourteenth century of the Christian Era

CHINESE COOLIES HAULING A BOAT

This method of pulling a boat up the rapids illustrates the old ways in China. The men each received a fourteenth of a cent in our money for their efforts. Now the rocks have been blown up by dynamite, and steamboats have replaced the former craft

1049. The War between Japan and China and Russia's Intervention. Japan, having become a manufacturing people, wished to extend her trade and was specially anxious to get control of the neighboring Korea, which was claimed by China. The Japanese easily defeated the Chinese in a short war (1894–1895). Korea was declared independent (which practically meant opening it up to Japan), but Russia intervened to prevent the Japanese from getting a foothold on the mainland. She induced China to permit her to build a railroad across Manchuria and to lease Port Arthur to her. This she fortified and connected by rail with the Trans-Siberian Railroad.

1050. The Germans in Shantung. Meanwhile the Germans found an excuse for strengthening themselves in the same region. A German missionary having been murdered in the province of Shantung, which lies opposite Korea, a German squadron appeared in Kiaochow Bay, in November, 1897, landed a force of marines, and raised the German flag. As a compensation for the murder of the missionary, Germany demanded a long lease of Kiaochow, with the right to build railways in the region and work mines. Upon acquiring Kiaochow the Germans built harbors and constructed forts, military barracks, and machine shops. In short, a model German town was constructed on the Chinese coast, which, with its defenses, was designed to form a base for further extension of Germany's sphere of influence.

1051. Great Britain gets a Foothold in Northern China. Great Britain, learning of the negotiations, sent a fleet northward from Hongkong to the Gulf of Chihli (or Pechili) and induced China to lease to her Weihaiwei, which lay just between the recent acquisitions of Germany and of Russia. England, moreover, believed it to be for her interest to be on good terms with Japan, and in 1902 an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between the two powers, binding each to assist the other in case a third party joined in a conflict in which either was involved. For example, England, under the provisions, would have to aid Japan in a war with Russia, should France or Germany intervene.

The foreigners were by no means content with establishing trading posts in China; they longed to develop the neglected natural resources of the empire, to open up communication by railroads and steamships, and to Westernize the orientals, in order that business might be carried on more easily with them and new opportunities be found for profitable investments.

1052. The Boxer Rebellion (1900). The Chinese at first opposed the building of railroads, but several thousand miles of track were laid and many other lines planned. Telegraphs and post offices of the European type were established. In 1898, after the war with Japan, China began to remodel her army and to send her students to study in foreign universities. These changes aroused the violent opposition of a party known as the "Boxers," who hated the missionaries and business men from the Western countries. They declared that the new ideas would ruin China and that the European powers would tear China to pieces if given a chance.

In June, 1900, the Boxers killed the German ambassador and besieged the Europeans in Peking, and appeared to be on the point of massacring them all. The foreign powers—Japan, Russia, Great Britain, the United States, France, and Germany —immediately collected a joint army which fought its way from the coast to Peking and brought relief to their imperiled fellow countrymen in the Chinese capital. The European troops looted the palace of the Chinese emperor, and China was forced to pay an indemnity of three hundred and twenty millions of dollars and pledge itself to suppress the Boxers and every society that was opposed to the presence of foreigners.

After the trouble in Peking was over, the Chinese government took up the reforms once more, and in 1906 a proclamation was issued promising that a Chinese parliament should be established and the old system of absolute rule abandoned forever.

1053. Russia in Manchuria. Scarcely had the Boxer rising been put down when it became apparent that Japan and Russia were drifting into war. Russia refused to evacuate Manchuria and insisted on getting a hold in Korea, even sending Cossacks

WOMEN SERVING TEA IN A JAPANESE HOUSE

The Japanese use very little furniture and kneel on the straw mats which cover the floor. Glass is rarely used, but the sashes are covered with translucent rice paper

JAPANESE TEA HOUSE AND GARDEN

The Japanese are much given to tea drinking, and there are many tea houses scattered throughout the country. Like the temples, monasteries, and hotels they often have very beautiful gardens

to build forts there. Japan declared that Russia had repeatedly promised to withdraw her troops from Manchuria and had agreed that Korea should be independent. As the Tsar's government gave the Japanese no satisfaction, they boldly went to war with Russia in February, 1904.

1054. Russo-Japanese War. Japan was well prepared for war and was, moreover, within easy reach of the field of conflict. The Russian government, on the contrary, was corrupt and inefficient and was already engaged in a terrible struggle with the Russian people (§ 1026). The eastern boundary of European Russia lay three thousand miles from Port Arthur, and the only means of communication was the single line of badly constructed railroad that stretched across Siberia to the Pacific.

The Japanese laid siege to Port Arthur, and for months the world watched in suspense the deadly attacks which the Japanese made upon the Russian fortress. On January 1, 1905, after a siege of seven months, Port Arthur surrendered.

Russia, meanwhile, dispatched its Baltic squadron to the Orient. It arrived in May in the straits of Korea, where Admiral Togo was waiting for it. The Tsar's fleet was practically annihilated in a few hours, with terrible loss of life, while the Japanese came out of the conflict almost unscathed.

1055. Treaty of Portsmouth. Lest the war should drag on indefinitely, President Roosevelt, acting under the provisions of the Hague Convention, took measures which brought about a peace. The conference between the representatives of Japan and Russia was held at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and on September 5 the Treaty of Portsmouth was signed. This recognized the Japanese influence as paramount in Korea, which, however, was to remain independent.[1] Both the Japanese and Russians were to evacuate Manchuria; the Japanese were, nevertheless, given the rights in the Liaotung peninsula and Port Arthur which Russia had formerly enjoyed.

[1] The Japanese have not left Korea independent. They immediately took control of the administration, and finally, by the treaty of August 23, 1910, Korea was annexed to the Japanese Empire.

1056. China becomes a Republic. Thus this great conflict produced by the rivalry of the European powers in the East was brought to an end, but the wealth of China and the fact that it had not yet organized a strong army or navy left it as a tempting prize for further aggression. Nevertheless, China was changing as rapidly as Japan had formerly done. Students returning home from Western countries determined to overthrow the Manchu (or Manchurian) dynasty, which had ruled for two hundred and sixty-seven years, and their corrupt officials. After a heroic and bloody struggle they forced the court, on February 12, 1912, to declare the abdication of the boy-emperor then on the throne and the creation of a republic.

Deposed Young Emperor of China

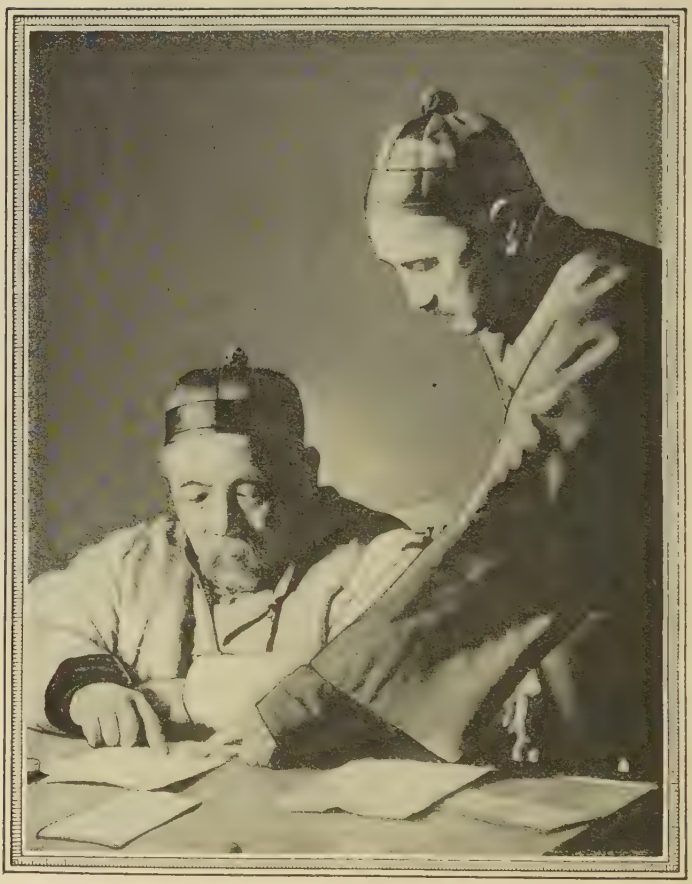
Hsuan Tung, the last of the Manchu dynasty, became emperor at the age of three and was forced to abdicate in 1912 when seven years old. He was permitted to retain his title and given a palace in which to reside

1057. China's Troubles with its First President. The president of the new republic, Yuan Shih-kai, posed as a revolutionist, but really longed to be the successor of the old Manchu dynasty. Then the Republicans revolted against a president who seemed to be steadily violating the principles of republican rule. During the spring of 1916 the disorders constantly increased and developed into a contest between southern China and the more backward North. In spite of the death of the president in June, 1916, the conflict continued.

The World War prevented the European powers from interfering and left the Chinese to continue their attempts to turn their ancient monarchy into a modern republic.

Dr. Sun Yat Sen

This ardent Republican has been the soul of the Chinese revolution. He was born in 1866. After studying medicine he determined to devote his life to the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty and the establishment of a Chinese republic. He spent a considerable period in the United States. When the revolution was finally successful, he was chosen provisional president of the new republic, but gave way to Yuan Shih-kai, China's first president



YUAN SHIH-KAI, FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC, AND HIS SECRETARY

A very able general, who was anxious for reform but feared that it would be forced prematurely on the country by the ardent Republicans led by Sun Yat Sen. He tried to make himself emperor, but this was opposed by the foreign powers, especially Japan, who feared his ability. He died in 1916

III. Partition of Africa

1058. The "Dark Continent." The last great region to attract the attention of Europeans looking for trade was Africa. Little was known of the interior before 1870. Between 1850 and 1880 many explorers braved the torrid heat and the dangers from disease, savages, and wild beasts to discover the sources of the Nile and to trace the courses of the Zambesi and the upper Congo Rivers. Of these Livingstone and Stanley are best known.

Stanley's famous journey through the heart of "Darkest Africa" naturally aroused the intense interest of all the European powers, and within ten years after his triumphant return to Marseilles in 1878 the entire surface of Africa had been divided among the powers or marked out into "spheres of influence." A generation ago a map of Africa was for the most part based on mere conjecture, except along the coast; today it is traversed by boundary lines surveyed almost as carefully as those which separate the various European countries.

1059. France in Africa. France has almost the whole of the northwestern shoulder of the continent, from the mouth of the Congo to Tunis. To be sure, a very considerable portion of the French claim is nothing but a desert, totally useless in its present state. On the east coast of Africa France controls French Somaliland. The French also hold the island of Madagascar.

1060. German Africa. Between 1884 and 1890 Germany acquired four considerable areas of African territory—Togoland, Kamerun, German Southwest Africa, and German East Africa, which included together nearly a million square miles. The Germans attempted to develop these regions by building railways and schools and expending enormous sums in other ways, but the wars with the natives and the slight commerce which was established left the experiment one of doubtful value.

1061. Belgium and the Congo Free State. Wedged in between German East Africa and the French Congo is the Belgian Congo. King Leopold of Belgium organized a company in 1876 to explore this region and later announced that he regarded

himself as the ruler of the vast territories of the company. The conduct of this company illustrates the way in which the European invaders were tempted to force the natives to work. The savage natives, accustomed to a free life in the jungle, did not relish driving spikes on railways or draining swamps for Belgian capitalists. The government, therefore, required native chiefs to furnish a certain number of workmen, and on their failure to supply the demand their villages were often burned. The government also required the natives to furnish a certain quantity of rubber each year; failure to comply with these demands was cruelly punished. Protests in Europe and America led the Belgian ministry, in 1908, to assume complete ownership of the Free State, which then took the name of the Belgian Congo.

BRIDGE ACROSS THE ZAMBESI RIVER, NEAR VICTORIA FALLS

Built in 1905 on the "Cape to Cairo" railway, this bridge crosses the great canyon in which for forty miles the river runs below the falls. The falls are twice the height of Niagara and over a mile wide. They occur about midway in the two-thousand-mile course of the river

1062. The Position of Egypt. South Africa, as has already been explained (§ 992), has fallen to the English. They also hold important territories on the east coast running inland to the great lakes of Africa. But more important, in some ways, is their control over Egypt. That ancient seat of civilization had, as we have seen (§ 305), been conquered by the Arabs in the seventh

THE PARTITION OF
AFRICA
Showing the Colonies, Dependencies, Protectorates, and Spheres of Influence of the different European States until 1914.
LEGEND
British French German
Portuguese Italian
Regions not under European control are uncolored
Railways Finished Proposed
Scale of Miles
0 500 1000
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
Longitude 20 West from 10 Greenwich 0 10
Algeciras
Gibraltar
Ceuta (Span.)
Tangiers
Casablanca
Fez
Algiers
Constantine
Biskra
Tunis
ALGERIA
(Annexed to France, 1848)
MOROCCO
Morocco
Agadir
Madeira Is. (Port.)
Canary Is. (Span.)
RIO DE ORO (Span.)
MAURITANIA
Timbuktu
Cape Verde Is. (Port.)
St. Louis
Senegal R.
C. Verde
Dakar
SENEGAL
GAMBIA
Bathurst
Bamaku
UPPER SENEGAL AND NIGER
Niger R.
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
FRENCH GUINEA
Konakry
Freetown
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
Monrovia
Bingerville
IVORY COAST
Kumassi
ASHANTI
NOR. TER.
GOLD COAST
TOGO
Dahomey
Porto Novo
Lagos
NORTHERN NIGERIA
Asaba
Calabar
Buea
KAMERUN
Fernando Po I. (Spanish)
Princess I. (Port.)
Duala
SPANISH GUINEA
Libreville
St. Thomas I. (Port.)
Annobon I. (Span.)
FRENCH
Brazzaville
Kabinda (Port.)
Ascension Is. (To Gr. Br.)
LOWER
Loanda
Benguela
St. Helena (To Gr. Br.)
GUINE
GERMA
Swakopmund
Walfisch Bay (To Gr. Br.)
Angra Pequena

Beirut
Damascus
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Alexandria
Port Said
SUEZ CANAL
Suez
Cairo
EGYPT
(Tributary of Turkey to 1914)
ASIA
INDIA
Assouan
1st Cataract
Wadi Halfa
Medina
Mecca
ARABIA
Red Sea
Port Sudan
Suakin
Bombay
Arabian Sea
Kassala
Massawa
Asmara
ERITREA
Ondurman
Khartum
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
DARFUR
El Obeid
Aden
Sokotra
(To Gr. Br.)
C. Guardafui
FRENCH SOMALI COAST
Jibuti
Fashoda
Berbera
BRITISH SOMALILAND
Adis Ababa
ABYSSINIA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
Stanley Falls
Albert Nyanza
UGANDA
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
Port Florence
Victoria Nyanza
Equator
CAN CONGO
Lake Nyangwe
Tanganyika
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Mombasa
Zanzibar (British)
Dar-es-Salaam
Seychelles Is.
(To Gr. Br.)
Amirante Is.
(To Gr. Br.)
INDIAN OCEAN
Li Bangwelo
Lake Nyasa
NYASALAND PROT.
Comoro Is.
(Fr.)
Mayotte
Mozambique
EAST AFRICA
Victoria Falls
Zambesi R.
Salisbury
Tamatave
Tananarivo
MADAGASCAR
(To France)
Rodriguez I.
(To Gr. Br.)
Beira
Sofala
Bulawayo
BECHUANALAND
Reunion I.
(Fr.)
Mauritius I.
(To Gr. Br.)
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
Tropic of Capricorn
Pretoria
TRANSVAAL
Mafeking
Johannesburg
Delagoa Bay
Lourenco Marquez
Comparative Area
PENN.
45,215 Square Miles
MAJUBA HILL
NATAL
Petermaritzburg
Durban
Port Elizabeth
40 Longitude 50 East from 60 Greenwich 70

century. Through the later Middle Ages it was ruled by a curious military class known as the Mamelukes and only fell to the Ottoman Turks in 1517. With the decline of the Sultan's power the country fell under the domination of the Mameluke Beys, or leaders; and it was against these that Bonaparte fought in 1798. Shortly after Nelson and the English had frustrated Bonaparte's attempt to bring Egypt under French rule a military adventurer from Albania, Mehemet Ali, compelled the Sultan to recognize him as governor of Egypt in 1805. A few years later he brought about the massacre of the Mamelukes and began a series of reforms. He created an army and a fleet, and not only brought all Egypt under his sway but established himself at Khartum, where he could control the Sudan, or region of the upper Nile. Before his death, in 1849, he had induced the Sultan to recognize his heirs as rightful rulers, Khedives, of Egypt.

1063. The British in Egypt. The importance of Egypt for the Western powers was greatly increased by the construction of the Suez Canal, begun in 1859, for both Port Said on the Mediterranean and Suez on the Red Sea are Egyptian ports. The English were able to get a foothold in Egypt through the improvidence of the Egyptian ruler Ismail I, who came to the throne in 1863 and by reckless extravagance involved his country in a heavy debt which forced him to sell a block of his canal shares to the British government. Still heavily in debt, however, Ismail was forced by his English and French creditors to let them oversee his financial administration. This foreign intervention aroused discontent in Egypt, and the natives revolted in 1882, demanding "Egypt for the Egyptians." Inasmuch as France declined to join in suppressing the rebellion, England undertook it alone, and after putting down the uprising assumed a temporary occupation of the country and the supervision of the army and finances of Egypt. After the rebellion of 1882 the British continued their "temporary" occupation until shortly after the opening of the World War of 1914, when England assumed a permanent protectorate over Egypt, which since the close of the war she still continues to maintain.

1064. Conquest of the Sudan. Soon after the British conquest of Egypt, trouble arose in the Sudan, where a revolt against the Khedive's government was organized under the leadership of Mohammed Ahmed, who claimed to be the Messiah and found great numbers of fanatical followers who called him El Mahdi, "the leader." General Gordon was in charge of the British garrison at Khartum. Here he was besieged by the followers of the Mahdi in 1885 and after a memorable defense fell a victim to their fury, thus adding a tragic page to the military history of the British Empire. This disaster was avenged twelve years later, when in 1897–1898 the Sudan was reconquered and the city of Khartum was taken by the British under General Kitchener.

1065. Prosperity of Egypt. During the occupation of Egypt by the English the progress of the country was unquestioned; industry and commerce developed steadily, public works were constructed, and financial order reëstablished under the supervision of the English agent, whose word was law. A large dam was built across the Nile at Aswan to control the floods. There was strict honesty in the government, and Egypt had never, in all its long history, been so prosperous. Nevertheless there was a party strongly opposed to the British control which claimed Egypt should be for the Egyptians. Since the World War Parliament has shown an inclination to withdraw somewhat from her responsibility assumed in Egypt.

IV. Decline of the Spanish Empire and Rise of the United States as a World Power

1066. American Expansion. In striking contrast to the colonial expansion of the other powers of Europe stand the two countries which in the era of discovery led them all in enterprise and achievement—Spain and Portugal.[1] Spain, who once

[1] Portugal, which lost its greatest possession, Brazil, about the same time that Spain lost its South American colonies, still retains considerable stretches of Africa, as a glance at the map will show, but its holdings in Asia are reduced to the posts of Macao in China and Goa in India. In foreign affairs it has been closely allied with England. In 1910 the monarchy was overthrown and Portugal became a republic.

could boast that the sun never set on her empire, had been in decline since the days of Philip II. After losing her colonies on the American continents in the early nineteenth century (§§ 862 ff.) she made no compensating gains in the other parts of the world.

In the meantime there was rising to predominance in North America a nation that was destined to deal the final blow to the Spanish empire. In the universal search for trade American business men were in no respect behind their European competitors. The natural resources of the United States and the skill of the American people placed that country among the first commercial powers of the whole world. At the same time the American territorial possessions were increased in the Atlantic and the Pacific. In 1867 Alaska was purchased from Russia. In 1878 a coaling station was secured in the Samoan Islands, and twelve years later one of the islands was formally brought under our flag. In 1898 the Hawaiian Islands were annexed. In that same year came the clash between the United States and Spain, which put an end to Spanish dominion in the New World.

1067. The Spanish-American War (1898). The cause of this war was the chronic disturbance which existed in Cuba under Spanish government and which led the United States to decide upon the expulsion of Spain from the Western Hemisphere. In 1895 the last of many Cuban insurrections against Spain broke out, and sympathy was immediately manifested in the United States. In February, 1898, the battleship *Maine* was mysteriously blown up in the harbor of Havana, where it had been sent in American interests. Although the cause of this disaster could not be discovered, the United States, maintaining that the conditions in Cuba were intolerable, declared war on Spain in April.

The war was brief, for the American forces were everywhere victorious. Cuba and Porto Rico were lost to Spain, and by the capture of the city of Manila in May the Philippine Islands also fell to the United States. Peace was reëstablished in August, and representatives were shortly sent to Paris to arrange the final terms. Cuba was declared independent; Porto Rico and the

Philippines were ceded to the United States.[1] The following year the Caroline and Pelew Islands were transferred to Germany, and thus the territory of Spain was reduced to the Spanish peninsula, the Balearic and Canary Islands, and her small holdings in Africa.

1068. Latin-American Relations of the United States. Many forces conspired to extend the influence of the United States into

Pan-American Union in Washington

Mexico, Central and South America, and the Caribbean. In general the Latin-American republics were formed from an amalgamation of native and European races, both inexperienced in the art of self-government. They were rich in natural resources but backward in industries. They needed capital to develop their business and foreign enterprise to start their factories and railways. They were plagued by many revolutions that resulted in the destruction of life and property. As they were near neighbors, the United States could not avoid taking an interest in their affairs. A Pan-American Congress first met in Washington in 1889 composed of delegates from nineteen countries of Latin America to discuss mutual interests. A bureau of American republics—later

[1] Spain also ceded to the United States the island of Guam in the Ladrone archipelago.

called the Pan-American Union—was founded in Washington and a handsome building erected to house it (see accompanying cut).

1069. The Venezuela Dispute. An old dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela over the boundary line of British Guiana roused the interest of the United States, and it offered to arbitrate. This offer was rejected by the British prime minister, Lord Salisbury, who declared that the matter did not concern the United States. President Cleveland determined, however, to maintain the Monroe Doctrine (§ 865), and urged Congress, December, 1895, to take the decision in hand, even at the risk of war with England. Parliament, horrified by the idea of a war between the two great English-speaking peoples, rebuked Lord Salisbury's policy and proposed that the matter be settled by arbitration, which was done.

1070. Dollar Diplomacy. During President Wilson's administrations Haiti, Santo Domingo, and Nicaragua became American protectorates, at least for the time being. The extension of American control over the last-named republics grew out of what was called "dollar diplomacy"; namely, intervention by the United States to assure the payment of debts due to foreign creditors. President Roosevelt had held that as the Monroe Doctrine would not permit European governments to intervene and collect debts by force of arms, the United States was in duty bound to assume a certain responsibility for seeing that the debts were paid.

1071. The Mexican Question. In the same way financial considerations as well as local disorders involved the United States in Mexican affairs. After the overthrow of President Diaz, in 1913, the Mexican republic fell into a revolutionary state. Three rulers rose to power and were overthrown. American lives and property were destroyed. American citizens who had invested in Mexico were in danger of losing their money, and occasional raids were made over the border into our territory. No government seemed strong enough to maintain order and at the same time carry out the land reforms demanded by the peons—laborers on the great estates, who were no better than serfs under the Diaz régime.

In 1914 the United States and Mexico were on the verge of war, but it was averted through the friendly mediation of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, the three most prosperous South American republics—the "A B C powers," as they were called. Again, in 1916, a raid by the Mexican bandit Villa into New Mexico led to armed intervention by our forces, which came to an end only when war with Germany became imminent.

The large population and vast natural resources of the Latin-American countries promise to make them a very important factor in the history of the future. The cultivation of friendly relations between the United States and the countries to the south is obviously one of the chief tasks of the American government.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the Industrial Revolution open world trade? Compare steamship and railroad as factors in the spread of commerce. What change in the routes of trade was made by the Suez Canal? the Panama Canal? How does foreign commerce stimulate imperialism? What effects did the missionaries have in spreading European culture?

II. Why should the Chinese object to Europeans' entering China? When did Europeans enter it? What is a "treaty port"? Why is a "railroad concession" in a backward country likely to bring international disputes? What power in the East is most dangerously situated with regard to China? Explain why the Japanese were able to pass from feudal to modern conditions so much more rapidly than the nations of Europe. What pretexts did the powers of Europe have in seizing Chinese territory? Explain the causes and results of the Boxer uprising. How have the interests of Russia and Japan clashed? Outline the Russo-Japanese War. Why has China been a prey to the European nations? How did Yuan Shih-kai try to turn the republic into an empire?

III. When was Africa opened up to colonization? Why has it been so behind America? Mark on an outline map the possessions of the European powers prior to the World War of 1914. Sketch the history of Egypt to the middle of the nineteenth century. How did the English get control of Egypt? How have they used their control?

IV. Trace the expansion of the United States since 1867. What were the causes and results of the Spanish-American War? Review the relations of the United States to Latin America.

CHAPTER XLIV

PROGRESS OF MODERN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

I. The Great Age of the Earth; Evolution; Modern Chemistry

1072. Influence of Scientific Discoveries and Invention. Perhaps even more important than the various events we have been reviewing have been the scientific discoveries during the past hundred years and the changes they have wrought in the ideas and daily life of civilized mankind. Great as were the achievements of the eighteenth century, mentioned in an earlier chapter, those of the nineteenth were still more startling. In order to appreciate this we have only to recollect that the representatives of the European powers who met together at Vienna after Napoleon's fall had not only never dreamed of telegraphs, telephones, electric lights, and electric cars, which are everyday necessities to us, but they knew nothing of ocean steamships or railways, of photography, anæsthetics, or antiseptics. Such humble comforts as matches, kerosene oil, illuminating gas, and our innumerable india-rubber articles were still unheard of. Sewing machines, typewriters, and lawn mowers would have appeared to them wholly mysterious contrivances whose uses they could not have guessed.

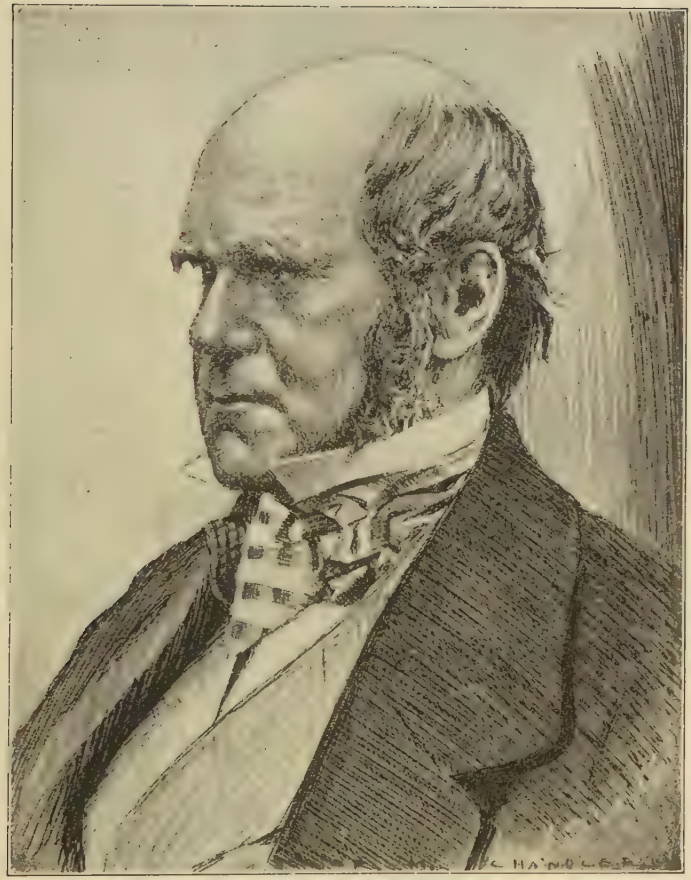
The progress of science in the twentieth century bids fair, with our ever more refined means of research, to solve many another deep mystery and add enormously to man's power and resources. It should be the aim of every student of history to follow the development of science and to observe the ways in which it is constantly changing our habits and our views of man, his origin and destiny. It will be possible here to do no more than suggest some of the more astonishing results of the scientific research

which has been carried on during the past hundred years with ever-increasing ardor and success, in both Europe and America.

1073. Great Age of the Earth. To begin with, almost everyone in Europe believed a hundred years ago that the earth had been created along with the sun, moon, and stars, and all the animals and plants some five thousand years before. Modern geologists, on the other hand, now believe that it must have required a hundred million, perhaps even a billion, years for the so-called sedimentary rocks to be laid down in the beds of ancient seas and oceans. Many of these rocks contain fossils, which indicate that plants and animals have existed on the earth from very remote periods. Accordingly it seems possible that for at least a hundred million years the earth has had its seas and its dry land, differing little in temperature from the green globe familiar to us.

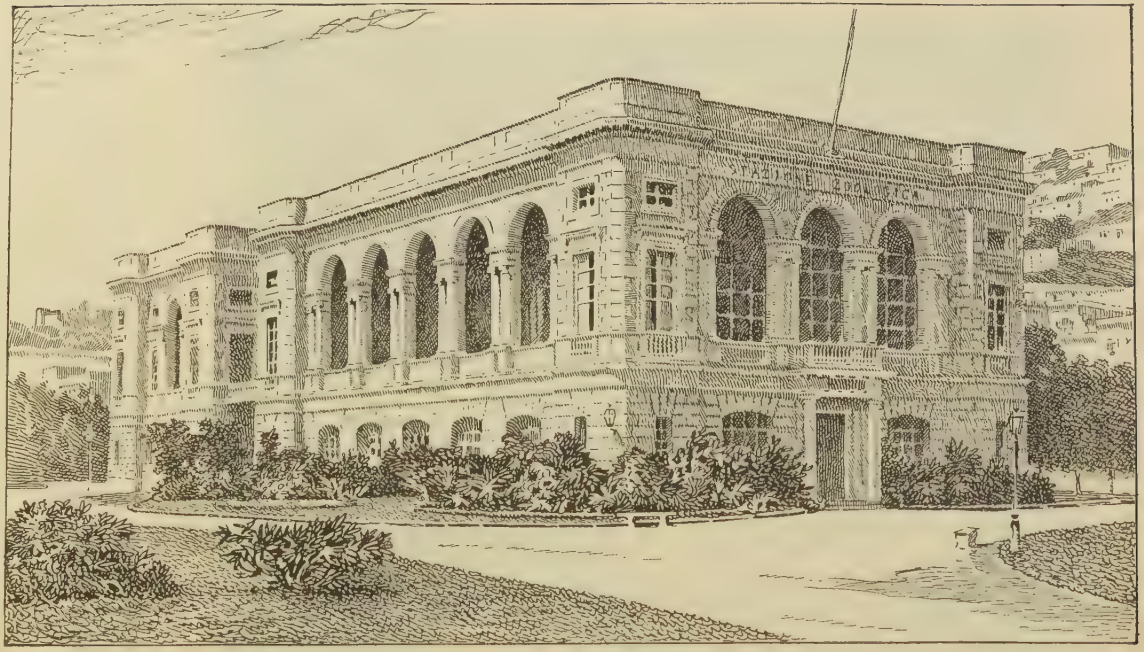
Even if we reduce this period by one half, it is impossible to form more than a faint idea of the time during which plants and the lower forms of animals have probably existed on the earth. Let us imagine a record's having been kept during the past fifty million years, in which but a single page should be devoted to the chief changes occurring during each successive five thousand years. This mighty journal would now amount to ten volumes of a thousand pages each; and scarcely more than the last page (Vol. X, p. 1000) would be assigned to the whole recorded history of the world from the earliest Egyptian and Assyrian inscriptions to the present day.

1074. Lyell's Work in Geology. As early as 1795 the Scotch geologist James Hutton published his conclusion that the earth had gradually assumed its present form by slow natural processes. In 1830 Sir Charles Lyell published his famous *Principles of Geology*, in which he explained at great length the manner in which the gradual contraction of the globe and the action of rain and frost, had, through countless æons, and without any great general convulsions or cataclysms, formed the mountains and valleys and laid down the strata of limestone, clay, and sandstone. He showed, in short, that the surface of the earth was the result of familiar causes, most of which can still be seen in operation.



DARWIN

Charles Darwin (1809–1882), after college days and a trip around the world (1832–1836) as naturalist to a scientific exploration, spent a secluded but studious and busy life in an English village. He published many books; one of the best known was *The Descent of Man* (1871)



NAPLES BIOLOGICAL STATION

This famous institution for the study of the animal and vegetable life of the Mediterranean was established in 1874. It has been supported by various European governments, and used by hundreds of foreign biologists

The work of more recent geologists has tended to substantiate Lyell's views by adding much new evidence for his conclusions.

1075. Darwin and the Theory of Evolution. Even in the eighteenth century it began to be suspected by distinguished investigators that plants and animals had slowly developed through the ages. Charles Darwin was the first, however, to advance such careful arguments for this view that it was accepted by large numbers of people. In his famous book *The Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*, published in 1859, he maintained that the various species of animals and plants—all the different kinds of trees and shrubs, fishes, snakes, birds, and mammals—were not descendants from original separate and individual species created in a certain form which they had always kept, but that these species as they exist in the world today were the result of many changes and modifications which have taken place during the millions of years in which plants and animals have lived upon the earth.

The theory that higher and more complicated kinds of animals and plants are derived from earlier lower and simpler ancestors is called *evolution.* Evolution, although far more disturbing to the older ideas of the world than the discovery of Copernicus that the earth revolves around the sun, made its way far more rapidly into general acceptance, and today a large majority of zoölogists, botanists, geologists, and biologists, and indeed a great part of those who have received a scientific training, accept the general theory of evolution.[1]

The opponents of the theory have slowly decreased in numbers. At first the clergy, both Protestant and Catholic, could find no words too harsh to apply to the patient and careful Darwin, who seemed to them to contradict the express word of God and to rob man of all his dignity. But as time went on many religious leaders became reconciled to the new view. For on further thought it seemed to them to furnish a more exalted notion of God's purposes and methods than that formerly held.

[1] Many investigators feel, however, that Darwin's explanation of evolution is, as he himself freely admitted, only a partial one and quite inadequate to account for the existing forms of animals and plants.

1076. The Atomic Theory. While the zoölogist, the botanist, and the geologist were elaborating the theory of evolution, the chemists, physicists, and astronomers were busy with the problems suggested by matter and energy—heat, light, electricity, the nature and history of the sun and stars. Early in the nineteenth century an Englishman, Dalton, suggested that all matter acted as if it consisted of *atoms* of the various elements, which combined with one another to form the molecules, or little particles of the innumerable compound substances. This theory, when carefully worked out, became the foundation of modern chemistry.

The chemist was long satisfied with the idea that the atoms were the smallest particles of matter which existed. He gradually added to the list of various kinds of atoms until he had about eighty *elements*, as he named them, out of which all things appear to be composed.

But the idea that the atom is the smallest possible particle of matter has had to be given up. Early in the twentieth century it was discovered that radium, an exceedingly rare and precious element, had the peculiarity, along with some other very heavy atoms, of breaking up into far smaller particles, called *electrons*. So it is now supposed that all atoms are made up of electrons rapidly vibrating about a nucleus. The electrons act like charges of negative electricity. There is therefore no such thing as "dead" matter, for the movements of the electrons, atoms, and molecules in what seems to us a cold, inert stone are so incredibly rapid and complicated as to defy description.

1077. Light and Electricity. During the nineteenth century the nature of heat and light was at last explained. Light and radiant heat are transmitted by minute waves produced, it is supposed by many scientists, in the *ether*, a something which it is assumed must everywhere exist, for without some medium the light would not reach us from the sun and stars.

Electricity, of which very little was known in the eighteenth century, has now been promoted to the most important place in the physical universe. Light is believed to be nothing more than electric forces traveling through the ether from a source of

electrical disturbance; namely, the luminous body. Matter itself may ultimately be proved to be nothing more than electricity. The practical applications of electricity during the past thirty years are the most startling and best known of scientific achievements—the telegraph, telephone, electric lights, and electric motors to run cars and various kinds of machines.

1078. Chemistry in Modern Life. The chemist has been able to analyze the most complex substances and discover just what enters into the make-up of a plant or the body of an animal. He has even succeeded in combining ("synthesizing") atoms in the proper proportions so as to reproduce artificially substances which had previously been produced only by plants or in the bodies of animals; among these are alcohol, indigo, madder, and certain perfumes. The chemist is able now to make over two hundred thousand substances, many of which do not occur in nature. He has given us our aniline dyes (made from coal tar) and many useful new drugs; he has been able greatly to improve and facilitate the production of steel. The chemist, since he knows just what a plant needs in its make-up, can, after analyzing a soil, supply those chemicals which are needed to produce a particular crop. He is becoming ever more necessary to the manufacturer, mine owner, and agriculturist, besides standing guard over the public health.

II. Progress in Biology and Medicine

1079. The Cell Theory and Modern Biology. In the world of plants and animals the discoveries have been quite as astonishing as in the realm of matter and electricity. About 1838 two German naturalists, Schleiden and Schwann, one of whom had been studying plants and the other animals, compared their observations and reached the conclusion that all living things were composed of minute bodies, which they named *cells*. The cells are composed of a gelatinous substance, to which the name of *protoplasm* was given in 1846. All life was shown to have its beginning in this protoplasm, and the old theory that very simple organisms might be generated spontaneously was shown to be

a mistake. The cell corresponds, in a way, to the molecules which form inanimate substances.[1]

The cell theory underlies the study of biology and is shedding a flood of light upon the manner in which the original cell, or egg, from which all animals come, develops and gradually gives rise to all the tissues and organs of the body. It has helped to explain many diseases and in some cases to suggest remedies, or at least rational methods of treatment. The human body and the functions of its various organs and their relations to one another, the extraordinary activities of the blood corpuscles, the nerves and their head and master the brain,—all these subjects and many others have been studied in the ever-increasing number of laboratories and well-equipped hospitals which have been founded during the past century. It is clear enough, in the light of our present knowledge, that the physicians of former days relied upon drugs and other treatment which were often far worse than nothing.

1080. Some Marvels in Medicine. In 1796 Edward Jenner first ventured to try vaccination and thus found a means of prevention for one of the most terrible diseases of his time. With the precautions which experience has taught, his discovery would doubtless rid the world of smallpox altogether if vaccination could be everywhere enforced. But there are always great numbers of negligent persons as well as some actual opponents of vaccination who will combine to give the disease, happily much diminished in prevalence, a long lease of life.

1081. Use of Anæsthetics introduced (1840–1850). Some fifty years after Jenner's first epoch-making experiment, operations began to be made on patients who had been rendered unconscious by the use of an anæsthetic; namely, ether. Chloroform soon

[1] Many very low organisms, like the bacteria, consist of a single cell. The human body, on the other hand, is estimated to contain over twenty-six billions of cells, that is, of minute masses of protoplasm, each of which is due to the division of a previous cell, and all of which sprang from a single original cell, called the ovum, or egg. "All these cells are not alike, however, but just as in a social community one group of individuals devotes itself to the performance of one of the duties requisite to the well-being of the community and another group devotes itself to the performance of another duty, so too, in the body, one group of cells takes upon itself one special function and another, another" (McMurrich, *The Development of the Human Body* (1907), p. 2).

began to be used for the same purpose.[1] Before the discovery of anæsthetics few could be induced to undergo the terrible experiences of an operation; even the most unsympathetic surgeon could not bring himself to take the necessary time and care as the patient lay under his knife. Now operations can be prolonged, if necessary, for an hour or more with no additional pain.

Joseph Lister

1082. Germ Theory of Disease and Antiseptics. But even after the discovery of anæsthetics surgical operations were usually fatal, for the wound was apt to become infected. Joseph Lister, an English surgeon, hit upon the idea of keeping his instruments scrupulously clean and protecting the wound in various ways, and thus managed to reduce the number of cases that went wrong. Pasteur, a French chemist, claimed (in 1863) that a virulent kind of ulcer was due to minute organisms, which he called *bacteria*. He found that bacteria were very common in the air, and that it was they that produced infection. Koch of Berlin discovered the germ of tuberculosis, and other investigators have found the germs of pneumonia, diphtheria, lockjaw, etc.

[1] That certain drugs would reduce or destroy pain was known to the Greeks, the ancient Chinese, and even in the Middle Ages. As early as 1800 Sir Humphry Davy, a famous English chemist, advocated the use of nitrous oxide (laughing gas) in surgical operations. Faraday, another English chemist, showed, in 1818, that the vapor of ether could be used to produce anæsthesia. American surgeons began to apply these discoveries in the forties, and Dr. Long of Georgia and Dr. Morton and Dr. Warren of Boston did much to bring ether into use. In 1847 Dr. Simpson of Edinburgh began to advocate the use of chloroform. Like most discoveries, that of producing anæsthesia cannot be attributed to the insight of any single person.

1083. Struggle against Disease-Producing Bacteria. At first sight it would seem hopeless to attempt to avoid bacteria, since they are so minute and so numerous, but experience has shown that they can be fended off in surgical cases by a scrupulous sterilization of everything that enters into the operation. That typhoid fever is due ordinarily to impure water or milk, that tuberculosis is spread mainly through the dried sputum of those afflicted with it, that the germs of yellow fever and malaria are transmitted by the mosquito,—all suggest obvious means of precaution which will greatly reduce the chances of spreading the diseases. Moreover, remedies are being discovered in addition to these preventive measures. Pasteur found that animals could be rendered immune to hydrophobia by injections of the virus of the disease. So-called *antitoxins* (counter poisons) have been discovered for diphtheria, lockjaw, and typhoid fever, but none has yet been found for tuberculosis or pneumonia. Much remains to be discovered in regard to susceptibility to disease.

Louis Pasteur

1084. Importance of the History of Science. It may well be that men of science, not kings or warriors or even statesmen, are to be the heroes of the future. Perhaps during the twentieth century the progress of science and its practical applications will be recognized as the most vital element in the history of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Our histories will have to be rewritten. Diderot's *Encyclopedia* will receive more space than the wars of Frederick the Great, and the names of Lyell, Darwin, Lister, Koch, and Pasteur will take their places beside those of Mêtternich, Cavour, and Bismarck.

For, after all, the real progress of civilization depends less upon statesmen who control the fate of nations than upon the scientist, inventor, and engineer, who give us control of nature and, to some extent, of life itself. From the laboratory comes most of the wealth and power of modern nations. The statesmen of the future must therefore reckon with these new contributions as the statesmen of the past have had to reckon with the new sea routes which changed the fate of the Mediterranean ports, or the Industrial Revolution which readjusted the nations of Europe and led to their expansion throughout the whole world.

III. The New History

1085. Great Extension of History Backward. Among the branches of human knowledge which have undergone great changes during the nineteenth century is *history* itself. It is now based on far more reliable sources than it was formerly and is more carefully written. Such a book as this could not have been produced fifty years ago, for the facts contained in the first three chapters were not then known. Half a century ago history dealt with a very short period in man's long career, mainly the last twenty-five hundred years. During the last half century a vast amount has been learned about man and his achievements in Egypt and Mesopotamia long before the Bible as we have it or the poems of Homer were written. We now know that writing was used in Egypt some four thousand years before the opening of the Christian Era. In this way the scope of history has been *doubled* and extends through five thousand years instead of twenty-five hundred.

Moreover, much has been discovered in the last fifty years about man before he had learned to write and make records of his experiences and thoughts. As we have seen, we can trace his gradual inventions and improvements by his stone tools and utensils, and later by the pictures he left on the walls of caves, and still later by the vestiges of his houses found on the shores of the Swiss lakes.

1086. Importance of Recent History. While our knowledge of the past now extends back far beyond what was known a hundred years ago, we have at the same time come to realize that the more recent the history the more important it is in enabling us to form a judgment on the problems of our own day. Twenty years ago such manuals as this were apt to deal pretty fully with ancient history—Greece and Rome—and give very little indeed about the modern world in which we live. This has now been reversed. The World War called everyone's attention to the vital importance of understanding European conditions if we were to understand the war and its consequences and the great problems that now face mankind. It will be noticed that less than half of the present volume is devoted to the whole period from earliest man down to the opening of the sixteenth century. On the other hand, a hundred and fifty pages are assigned to the developments of the past half century, which concerns us most nearly.

1087. History alone enables us to understand the World of Today. The reason for this is that the authors believe that we can only understand the present by understanding the past. We each of us have to explain our own lives and circumstances by our own particular past, by our memories and experiences and the conditions in which we happen to have been placed. So it is with mankind in general. One has to realize man's slow struggle up from ignorance and savagery to understand the constant need for reform and the difficulty of carrying it out.

There is no reason to think that we do not still have innumerable reforms to make, for our knowledge is ever increasing and our situation is constantly being changed as a result of new knowledge and new inventions, which have revolutionized the life of mankind in the past and will continue to change it in the future and so raise ever new tasks for the reformer.

1088. Why History often fails to arouse Interest. The reason why so many people are not interested in history is because the older historical manuals contained so many things that could not be brought into any relation with our own lives and interests. Obviously it has been necessary in writing this volume (which

gives some idea of our new knowledge of man thousands of years before the Greeks and Romans came on the scene and which at the same time attempts to give the reader a grasp of very recent occurrences) to leave out many things that were in the older textbooks. It has been the object of the authors to tell only the very important things that one must know in order to see how man has reached his present stage. They put nothing in just because it happened, but include only the matters that are absolutely essential in tracing man's general progression from the Early Stone Age to the readjustment of Europe that took place after the World War.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the growth of the science of geology change men's ideas? What is meant by the theory of evolution? When was it first advanced? What contribution did Darwin make to it? Why was it opposed? What has the chemist contributed to civilization? How did the discovery of radium affect our views of matter?

II. What is the cell theory in biology? What can you tell of bacteria? Describe various steps in the development of the science of medicine. Why should governments give more attention to scientific discovery and its promotion? What departments of our government are devoted to the increase of scientific knowledge?

III. How has history been extended back? What arguments can you give for special attention to recent history? Illustrate the manner in which history enables us to understand the present. Give some examples of the way in which your own history explains your present situation and interests.

BOOK X. THE TWENTIETH CENTURY AND THE WORLD WAR

CHAPTER XLV

ORIGIN OF THE WAR OF 1914

I. The Armies and Navies of Europe

1089. The Incredible War of 1914. In August, 1914, the most terrible and destructive war in the history of the world broke out. Never before had millions and millions of men been ready to march against an enemy at a moment's notice; never before had any European army been supplied with such deadly weapons; never before had any war, however serious, so disturbed the affairs of the whole globe. The war came to most people as a horrible surprise. They could not believe that the European governments would dare take the fearful responsibility of entering upon a struggle which they all knew would involve untold woe and destruction. Nevertheless war was declared, and since it is, perhaps, the most important single event in the whole history of the world, we must endeavor to see how it came about and what were the great questions involved.

1090. Prussia and the Growth of Militarism. After Germany defeated France in 1870–1871, nearly fifty years of peace had followed in western Europe. Meanwhile all the powers had been spending vast sums each year to train and equip soldiers. Prussia was the chief promoter of militarism. Following her defeat at Jena (§ 832) it had become clear to her statesmen that Prussia could no longer rely on an old-fashioned standing army, but must depend on the "nation in arms." Accordingly her men were given

EUROPE
in 1914
0 100 200 300 400 500
Scale of Miles.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Arctic Circle
ICELAND
To Denmark
Jan Mayen
Faroe Is.
To Denmark
Shetland Is.
Hebrides
Orkney Is.
SCOTLAND
BRITISH ISLES
IRELAND
Belfast
Dublin
Cork
Edinburgh
Glasgow
ENGLAND
Manchester
Liverpool
Birmingham
London
English Channel
North Sea
NETHERLANDS
Haarlem
Amsterdam
Rotterdam
Leyden
Antwerp
BELGIUM
Brussels
Cologne
Frankfort
Berlin
Dresden
Hamburg
Havre
Paris
Loire R.
FRANCE
Seine R.
Rhine R.
GERMANY
Prague
Danube R.
Munich
Vienna
AUSTRIA-
Bay of Biscay
Cape Finisterre
Bordeaux
Geneva
Zurich
SWITZERLAND
THE ALPS
MT. BLANC
Milan
Genoa
Trieste
Adriatic Sea
Marseille
Corsica
Rome
Naples
MT. VESUVIUS
Sardinia
Balearic Islands
Barcelona
Madrid
SPAIN
Lisbon
PORTUGAL
C. St. Vincent
Strait of Gibraltar
Gibraltar (Brit.)
Malaga
Tagus R.
Guadalquivir R.
Ebro R.
CANTABRIAN MTS.
PYRENEES
Mediterranean
Palermo
Sicily
Strait of Messina
MT. ETNA
Malta
(To Gr. Britain)
Algiers
Tunis
AFRICA
Morocco
Christiania
Skager Rack
Gottenburg
DENMARK
Copenhagen
Trondhjem
Bergen
Lofoten Islands
NORWAY
Longitude West from Greenwich 0 Longitude East from Greenwich 10
60
50
10
30
20
10
0
10

OCEAN
Tundras
Ob R.
SIBERIA
Arctic Circle
Petchora R.
URAL MOUNTAINS
Lapland
White Sea
Archangel
Tobolsk
Dwina R.
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Perm
Gulf of Finland
St. Petersburg
Kazan
Kama R.
VALDAI HILLS
Riga
Nijni Novgorod
Volga R.
Moscow
Orenburg
RUSSIA
Duna R.
Saratov
Ural R.
Caspian Sea
Warsaw
Kursk
Valga R.
Dniester R.
Dnieper R.
Don R.
Astrakhan
Sea of Azof
Crimea
CAUCASUS MTS.
ROUMANIA
Bucharest
Sevastopol
Black Sea
MT. ELBRUZ
Baku
Tiflis
Sofia
BALKAN MTS.
Trans-Caucasia
Adrianople
Bosporus
Trebizond
Constantinople
Erzerum
Salonikl
TURKEY IN ASIA
Dardanelles
Comparative Area
Smyrna
Aegean Sea
OHIO
Cyprus
(To Gr. Britain)
Crete
41,060 Square Miles.

a brief period of training in the army and then were sent into the reserve forces. This made a much larger force available in case of war than any standing army of the old type. When, fifty years later, William I and Bismarck were preparing to establish Prussia's control of Germany, the annual levy of recruits was increased and the term of service was lengthened. With an effective army thus built up of four hundred thousand troops, Prussia, in 1870, succeeded in reaching her ambition of consolidating Germany into the German Empire, with the king of Prussia at its head.

1091. The Spread of the Prussian System. Not long after the war of 1870–1871 all the European powers, except England, adopted the plan of building up an army by "conscription"; that is, making all able-bodied men liable to service in the army for two or three years, after which they were sent into the reserve. A large number of permanent officers had to be maintained, and a vast amount had to be spent on rifles, cannon, and other arms, which were being constantly improved and rendered more and more deadly.

The result of this competition in armaments was a tremendous increase in the size of the continental armies and a fearful burden of taxation, which the people had to bear. When the war broke out Germany and France had each over four millions of men in their armies, Russia had six or seven millions, and Austria-Hungary had over two and a half millions. England's forces, on the other hand, numbered less than two hundred thousand. The English army, like that of the United States, was recruited by voluntary enlistment and not built up by national conscription.

1092. The English Navy. England, however, relied for her protection upon her unrivaled navy, which she has maintained at a strength equal to that of any two other powers. There are two reasons for this great navy. England has a much larger population than it is possible to feed from her own farms, and so has to import most of her food. Then, too, England is almost wholly a manufacturing country and is vitally dependent upon her commerce. If, therefore, England should be defeated at sea, she would be utterly overcome.

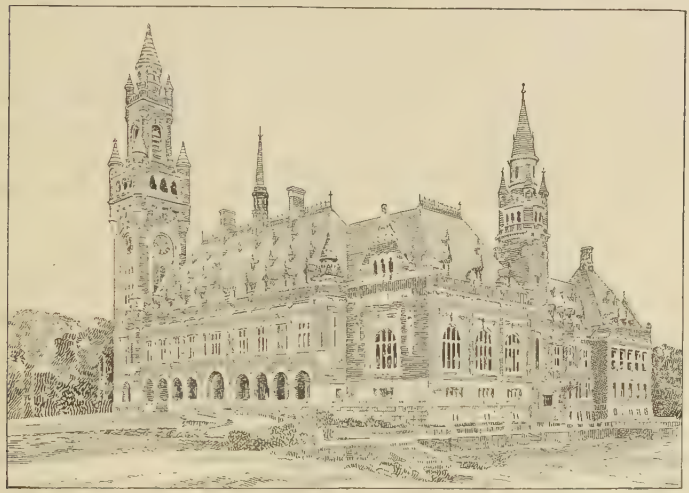
1093. The Naval Ambition of Germany. Germany was jealous of England's numerous colonies and extensive trade. She was eager to capture much of this commerce for herself and to protect it by a powerful fleet. Kaiser William II repeatedly declared that Germany's future lay upon the ocean. After 1897 the German navy was built up so rapidly that it became a menace to the peace and security of other nations, and they, for protection, had to increase their navies. So to the crushing cost of armies European nations added the cost of navies, in which the rapid progress of invention made battleships almost worthless if they were but a few years old.

II. Movements for Peace: the Hague Conferences

1094. The Hague Conferences (1899, 1907). The enormous cost of armaments and the increasing horror of war led many earnest people to try to prevent war altogether. The first notable movement toward arranging for a lessening of armaments originated with the Tsar, Nicholas II. In 1898 he proposed a great conference of the powers at The Hague to consider how the existing peace might be maintained and military expenditures reduced.

The Hague Conference did nothing to limit armaments. It is significant in view of later events that Germany strongly and successfully opposed any such action. The Conference did, however, in spite of German opposition, establish a permanent Court of Arbitration to which difficulties arising between nations "involving neither honor nor vital interests" might be submitted. But there was no way of compelling a nation to submit its grievances, and just those very sources of war that make most trouble were excluded from consideration. At the second conference, held in 1907, the limitation of armaments was again advocated by England, but again Germany and Austria caused a postponement of any action on the question. However, certain rules were established in regard to laying mines, the bombardment of unfortified towns, and the rights of neutrals in war, to which little or no attention was paid by Germany after the war began.

1095. Arbitration Treaties between Nations. Within a decade after the first Hague Conference more than one hundred and thirty treaties were, however, made between nations, tending toward maintaining peace by arbitration. International societies



THE PEACE PALACE AT THE HAGUE, HOLLAND

This magnificent building was inaugurated as a center for the peaceful settlement of international disputes, in August, 1913 — just a year before the war broke out. Mr. Carnegie contributed $1,500,000 to pay for it

and congresses were, moreover, steadily increasing in number, and there was a general recognition that peoples of different nations had innumerable common interests which they should help one another to promote.

III. Matters of Dispute; National Rivalries

1096. Rivalries in Northern Africa. We have seen how the nations of Europe began in the latter part of the nineteenth century, as rivals for the world's trade, to seize colonies and trading posts in Africa and Asia, and, moreover, how they stood eying each other suspiciously as to which was to profit most from the

decline of Turkey (Chapter XLIII). Now we must see how these conditions—which for almost fifty years had somehow been adjusted peacefully—helped, in the summer of 1914, to precipitate the war.

First, let us recall the exploration and partition of Africa. France took most of the Mediterranean shore, and in so doing incurred, at different times, the rivalry of Italy, England, and Germany. Its province of Algeria, conquered in 1830 and thoroughly subdued in 1870–1874, had two native states as neighbors —Tunis and Morocco. Claiming that the Tunisian tribesmen were raiding the border, France conquered Tunis in 1881 and thus forestalled Italy, which had intended taking the site of ancient Carthage for itself.

France and England fell out when England got financial control in Egypt, for this was bitterly resented by the French. When the English, under General Kitchener, had conquered the Sudan in 1898, at the cost of many lives, a French explorer, Colonel Marchand, crossed the heart of Africa from the west and planted the French tricolor at Fashoda, in the upper Sudan, before Kitchener could reach there. When word of this reached Paris and London, war seemed inevitable, and it would have come had not the French given way. The "Fashoda affair" created a very strained situation between France and England.

1097. Edward VII and the *Entente Cordiale*. Within four years, however, the change in feeling was complete. King Edward VII, who had succeeded to the throne of England upon the death of his mother, Victoria, in 1901, was personally fond of France—and the French of him. Skillful statesmen made the most of the new situation, and in 1904 France and England came to a "cordial understanding"—or, to use the French phrase, *entente cordiale*—concerning all their outstanding sources of quarrel. This *Entente,* as it is generally called, turned out to be one of the most important facts in the world's history. France was to recognize British interests in Egypt, and England those of France in Morocco, which country France had begun to penetrate

from the Algerian border. The *Entente* was hailed with great satisfaction on both sides of the English Channel.

England had even earlier made a treaty with Japan, and now she came to terms with her ancient rival Russia. The Tsar's armies had been gradually penetrating nearer and nearer to India, and a conflict with the British seemed likely to come at any moment. However, in 1907, the two powers settled their dispute by each carving out a sphere of influence in Persia and agreeing not to interfere with one another. These two great powers were by no means naturally friends, for the British hated the Russian autocracy and London was a place of refuge for Russian revolutionists. The Russian government, on the other hand, disliked the English ideas of liberty.

1098. Europe on the Brink of War; Morocco. One great power seemed to be excluded from this new cordial understanding—that was Germany. The German newspapers denounced the *Entente* as hostile to their land and designed to encircle the Central Powers—Germany and Austria—as with an iron ring. In 1905, therefore, Germany, supported by Austria, objected to the agreement between England and France by which the latter was to have a free hand in Morocco. Germany claimed to have interests there, too, and the emperor spoke in such a way as to bring on a general "war scare." France agreed to a conference at Algeciras, Spain, in which the United States took an active part. This body granted the French police power in Morocco but guaranteed the latter's independence. In 1911 Germany interfered again in Morocco. Because there were a few Germans in that country she sent a cruiser to Agadir and boldly demanded that France consult her in Moroccan matters and change her policy of policing the country. War was very narrowly averted. France gave up some of its possessions on the Congo to Germany in order to be allowed a free hand in Morocco.

The Agadir incident alarmed statesmen in England as well. Everyone saw how near Europe had come to the brink of war. Imperialists in Germany said the Agadir incident had been a

failure for Germany, since France was left in possession of Morocco, and they demanded stronger action in future. Imperialists in France and England were angered at the bold way Germany had apparently tried to humble them before the world and were bitter that Germany got any satisfaction at all. The result was that all nations increased their warlike preparations.

IV. The Near-Eastern Question

1099. The Balkan Imbroglio. Although war between Germany and the *Entente* powers was avoided by a narrow margin in 1911, the fatal conflict was only being postponed. Conditions in the Balkan region, in which Austria-Hungary and Russia were vitally interested, were destined to lead to the final catastrophe in which the ancient dynasties of the Hapsburgs and the Romanoffs and all their ambitions and pretensions came to a tragic end.

In a former chapter we traced the gradual disruption of Turkey during the nineteenth century and the emergence of the Balkan states of Serbia, Greece, Rumania, and Bulgaria. Russia, it will be recollected, claimed to be the natural protector of the Slavic peoples of the Balkan region. When the Serbian and Bulgarian people, driven to desperation by the atrocities of the Turks, had revolted, in 1876, Russia had come to their aid and defeated the armies of the Sultan. Then Austria-Hungary and England had intervened and induced the Tsar to submit the whole Balkan matter to the Congress of Berlin. Here it was decided by the powers that Serbia, Rumania, and little Montenegro should be free and independent of the Turkish rule and that Bulgaria should also be independent except for the payment of tribute to the Sultan. The provinces of Bosnia and the small territory called Herzegovina, to the south, were taken from the Turkish government and turned over to Austria to administer.

1100. Dissatisfaction with the Berlin Settlement. No one was satisfied with the compromises made at Berlin. A few years later (1885) Bulgaria quietly annexed the district south of her (Eastern Rumelia) and so considerably increased her territory.

A Palace of the Sultan, Constantinople

A Former Grand Vizier of Turkey, Kiamil Pasha

In 1897 Greece risked a war with Turkey, with the hope of increasing her realms, but was defeated. Turkey was of course anxious at all costs to hold on to the remnant of her once large dominion in Europe left her by the Congress of Berlin. She still held Macedonia and Albania. In 1908, thirty years after the unsatisfactory settlement at Berlin, a series of events began which in six years precipitated the World War.

1101. The Turkish Revolution of 1908. During the opening years of the twentieth century there developed in Turkey a small party of reformers, known as Young Turks. In 1908 a so-called "Committee of Union and Progress" was formed, which declared that Turkey must have a constitution and that the reformers would march on Constantinople if the Sultan did not yield. The aged Sultan, Abdul Hamid, did not feel himself in a position to oppose the movement, and so even Turkey got something at last that passed for a constitution. The election of representatives to the Turkish parliament took place, and the assembly was opened by the Sultan with great pomp in December, 1908. This "bloodless revolution" attracted the attention of Europe, and everyone wondered whether the Young Turks, who were few in number and unpractical in their notions of government, would really succeed in reforming such a thoroughly corrupt government as that of Abdul Hamid.

1102. Austria annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina. Bulgaria immediately seized the occasion to declare itself entirely independent of Turkey. Next Austria proclaimed the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the two Slavic provinces of Turkey which she had been managing since the settlement at the Congress of Berlin. She set to work to Germanize them as completely as possible and suppress all tendencies to join their Slavic relatives in Serbia. A glance at the map will show how important these provinces were for Austria, since they connected her other main possessions with Dalmatia and her ports on the Adriatic.

1103. War between Italy and Turkey. In September, 1911, Turkey's troubles were multiplied, for Italy declared war on her, on the ground that Italian subjects in Tripoli were not properly

treated. All Europe protested against this "high-handed" action by Italy; but Italy replied that she was merely following the example set by other countries—protecting the lives and property of her citizens by annexing a country beset by chronic disorders. Turkey was no match for Italy. There was not a great deal of fighting, but Italy took possession of such portions of Tripoli as she could hold with her troops and also captured the island of Rhodes. The Young Turks did not feel that they could face the unpopularity of surrendering these to Italy, but after the war had dragged on for a year they were forced, in October, 1912, by the oncoming of a new Balkan war, to cede Tripoli, reserving only a vague Turkish suzerainty. Italy continued to hold Rhodes too.

1104. The First Balkan War (1912–1913). Venizelos, the statesman, who had been reorganizing Greece with the ability of a Cavour, secretly arranged an alliance with Bulgaria, Serbia, and little Montenegro for a war with Turkey, which began in October, 1912. The Turkish army proved very ineffective, and the Bulgarians were able in a few days to defeat it, invest the important fortress of Adrianople, and drive the Turkish forces back close to Constantinople. The Greeks advanced into Macedonia and Thrace, and the Montenegrin and Serbian army defeated the Turkish army sent against them and attacked Albania.

1105. Austria Intervenes. Austria now began to get very nervous lest the Serbians should establish themselves on the Adriatic. She forbade Serbia to hold the port of Durazzo. Had Russia been inclined to support Serbia at that moment the general European war would probably have broken out at the end of 1912 instead of two years later. Serbia, however, backed down. A truce was arranged, and representatives of the Balkan states and of Turkey met in London to see whether peace could be arranged. The powers advised Turkey to give up everything in Europe except Constantinople and the region immediately to the west. The Young Turks decided, however, to fight a little longer, and the war was resumed in January. Everything went against them, and

GERMAN
EM
Eger R.
Carlsbad
Eger
Elbe
Prague
R. Königgrätz
BOHEMIA
Pilsen
Moldau
Tabor
Nuremberg
Main R.
BAVARIA
Budweis
Ulm
Danube R.
Augsburg
Passau
Gmünd
LOWER
Munich
UPPER AUSTRIA
Linz
Danube R.
Vienna
Schönbrunn
AUSTRIA
L. of Constance
Gmunden
Salzburg
Bregenz
VORARLBERG
LIECHTENSTEIN
Inn R.
Innsbruck
BRENNER PASS
SALZBURG
Enns R.
Bad Gastein
STYRIA
GR. GLOCKNER
ALPS
STYRIAN ALPS
Gratz
SWITZERLAND
RHAETIAN ALPS
TYROL
Brixen
CARNIC ALPS
CARINTHIA
Botzen
JULIAN ALPS
Klagenfurt
Trent
ALPS
Laibach
TRENTINE
Lake of Garda
Görz
CARNIOLA
Trieste
Agram
CROAT
Verona
Padua
Venice
Gulf of Venice
Istria
Fiume
Karlstadt
SLAV
Mantua
Modena
Bologna
ADRIATIC SEA
Rimini
Zara
DALMAT
Florence
San Marino
Pisa
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ITALY
Ancona
Lissa
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS
10°
12°
14°
16°
50°
48°
46°
44°

st 18° from Greenwich
20°
22°
24°
26°
28°
50°
48°
46°
44°
RUSSIA
POLAND
Vistula R.
Cracow
Lemberg
Bug R.
GALICIA
Dniester R.
Stanislau
Pruth R.
Czernowitz
BUKOVINA
CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS
Hernad R.
Theiss R.
Waag R.
Neutra
Gran R.
Gran
Raab
Budapest
Danube R.
Nagy-Karoly
Nagy-Banya
Grosswardein
Klausenburg
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
Szegedin
Baja
Mohacs
Maria-Theresiopel
Temesvar
Lugos
Hermannstadt
Kronstadt
RED TURM PASS
Theiss R.
Esseg
Peterwardein
Semlin
Weissk
Old Orsova
Danube R.
Belgrade
Drina R.
Bosna R.
Bukharest
ROUMANIA
NIA
d 1908)
Sarajevo
SERVIA
EGOVINA
NOVIBAZAR
MONTENEGRO
Cattaro
Cetinje
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
1867-1918
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50 100 150

in May preliminaries of peace were signed in London in which Turkey turned over Macedonia and Crete to the Balkan allies.

1106. The Second Balkan War (1913) over the Spoils of the First. But Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece were all jealous of one another, and the division of the booty led immediately to Bulgaria's turning around to wage war on Greece and Serbia. There was a month of frightful war (July, 1913), and then the Bulgarians, defeated on all sides,—for even the Turks recovered Adrianople and the Rumanians invaded on the east,—agreed to consider peace, and delegates met in Bucharest, the capital of Rumania.

1107. Treaty of Bucharest (1913). The treaties concluded at Bucharest between the Balkan kingdoms disposed of practically all of Turkey's possessions in Europe. The Sultan was left with Constantinople and a small area to the west, including the important fortress of Adrianople. The great powers, particularly Austria, had insisted that Albania should be made an independent state, so as to prevent Serbia's getting a port on the Adriatic. The rest of the former Turkish possessions were divided up between Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Montenegro. Greece got the important port of Salonica and the island of Crete as well as a considerable area in Macedonia. Bulgaria was extended to the Ægean Sea on the south. Serbia was nearly doubled in area, and Montenegro as well.

1108. Revival of Rivalry between Austria-Hungary and Russia. The Balkan wars revived all the old bitter rivalry between Austria-Hungary and Russia and led, as we shall see, to a general European conflict unprecedented in the annals of history. The government at Vienna was largely controlled by the German element, and it did all it could to keep the Slavic population in Bohemia and Moravia and, to the east, the Ruthenians in a condition of political subordination. In Hungary the Magyar nobility asserted their supremacy as against the Slovaks and Rumanians within the Hungarian boundary on the north and east and the Slavonians and Croats to the south. Both the Slavs to

the north (Czecho-Slavs) and those to the south (Jugo-Slavs) bitterly resented the situation which deprived them of their due influence in both Austria and Hungary.

With the annexation of Bosnia, in 1908, the situation became worse than ever. The neighboring Balkan state of Serbia was alarmed and indignant at this, since the annexed provinces were peopled with South Slavs, and the Serbians had cherished the ambition of uniting with them and the Montenegrins in a new South Slavonic state which would reach from the Danube to the Adriatic. Russia also was angered, but when Germany, Austria's ally, declared that it would support Austria, in arms if need be, Russia, which had not yet recovered from the war with Japan and its own revolutions, was obliged to submit to the humiliation, as she viewed it, of being unable to protect those of her own race in the Balkans.

1109. Rivalry between Austria and Serbia. For Serbia, indeed, the annexation of Bosnia to Austria was a serious blow. It was now apparently shut in from the sea for all time to come, and so would be dependent for a market for its farm products upon its enemy across the Danube, Austria-Hungary. This would reduce it to the condition of a weak and somewhat dependent state, which was what Austria wanted.

In the Balkan wars of 1912–1913, however, Serbia burst its boundaries upon the south and all but reached the Adriatic through Albania. Again Austria interfered and had an independent prince set up in Albania to shut Serbia in. The Serbians felt that the natural rewards of their victories had been denied them by their powerful and jealous neighbor, and bitter hatred resulted.

The situation at the end of the Second Balkan War augured ill for the peace of Europe. Although Austria had managed to frustrate Serbia's hope of getting a port on the Adriatic, and had succeeded in having Albania made an independent principality under a German prince, Serbia had nearly doubled her territory, and there was every probability that she would undertake to carry out her former plan of uniting the discontented

ETHNOGRAPHIC MAP OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, 1914

Southern Slavs in the neighboring provinces of Austria-Hungary—Bosnia, Croatia, and Slavonia. Germany was in hearty sympathy with the plans of Austria, while Russia was supposed to be ready to support Serbia and the Southern Slavs, their distant kinsmen.

1110. German Ambitions. Germany now expressed grave fears that Russia would dominate the Balkan regions and perhaps seize Constantinople. This would put an end to a cherished plan of Germany—a railroad from Berlin to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf, which would control a vast trade with the Orient. The political aspects of such a controlling line through Middle Europe were revealed strikingly after the outbreak of the World War. Germany had already arranged a "concession" from Turkey to construct this road, which was well under way when Serbia, through whose territory the trains from Germany must pass, became a danger.

1111. Feverish Military Preparations in 1913. The year 1913, therefore, brought renewed activity in military "preparedness." Germany took the lead by increasing its standing army, and the Reichstag voted about a billion marks for unusual military expenses (June, 1913). France replied by increasing the term of active service in the army from two to three years. Russia made heavy appropriations, and General Joffre, the French commander in chief, was called in to make suggestions in regard to reorganizing the Russian army. Austria-Hungary strengthened herself with improved artillery; England devoted heavy sums to her navy; and even Belgium introduced universal military service on the ground that Germany had been constructing railroad tracks up to her borders, which could be explained only by her purpose to pass through Belgium when the fight began.

V. The Outbreak of the War

1112. The Murder of the Austrian Archduke. On June 28, 1914, occurred the event which served as a pretext for war. Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, and his wife were assassinated while upon a visit to

SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE 1914
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
RUSSIA
RUMANIA
SERBIA
BULGARIA
TURKEY
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
ARMENIA
PERSIA
ARABIA
GREECE
ITALY
Vienna
Prague
Budapest
Krakow
Lemberg
Rome
Constantinople
Smyrna
Athens
Kiev
Odessa
Kherson
Sevastopol
Kaffa
Kertch
Akkerman
Bucharest
Belgrade
Sofia
Adrianople
Gallipoli
Brusa
Angora
Sinope
Samsun
Trebizond
Erzerum
Batum
Tiflis
Erivan
Kars
Ardahan
Amasia
Tokat
Kaisarieh
Kharput
Diarbekir
Urfa
Mosul
Konia
Adalia
Tarsus
Adana
Antioch
Aleppo
Damascus
Beirut
Tripoli
Nicosia
Famagusta
Bagdad
Euphrates
Tigris
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Sea of Azov
Aegean Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Adriatic Sea
Ionian Islands
Dardanelles
Danube
Dniester
Dnieper
Don
Kuban
Volga
Kizil
Araxes
Longitude 15° 20° 25° East from 30° Greenwich 35° 40° 45°

Bosnia. The Serbian government had warned the archduke not to go there, because it feared that hot-headed pro-Serbian conspirators might attempt an assassination. Austria nevertheless asserted that Serbia had favored such conspiracies and was therefore responsible for the assassination. It allowed a month to pass, however, before making formal protest.

1113. The Austrian Ultimatum (July 23, 1914). On July 23 Austria sent Serbia not a protest but an ultimatum. It gave Serbia forty-eight hours in which to agree to suppress anti-Austrian propaganda in press, schools, or by societies; to dismiss from the army or civil office anyone obnoxious to Austria; and to allow Austrian officials to sit in Serbian courts in order to bring the guilty to justice. Serbia agreed to all these humiliating conditions except the last, and offered to refer even that to the Hague Tribunal. This Austria refused to do, and this decision was cheered in Vienna.

1114. The Position of Germany. The last week of July, 1914, was perhaps the most momentous in the world's history. It was clear that Russia would not stand by and see Serbia conquered by Austria. Germany, on the other hand, declared that she would assist Austria in every way if attacked by Russia. She resisted the efforts of the Russian, French, and English diplomats, who urged that the difficulties between Austria and Serbia be referred to the Hague Tribunal, and insisted that it was Austria's affair, which she must be allowed to settle for herself. She did nothing to stop the impending war, as she might have done. On the contrary, she gave the Austrians full support, knowing very well that it might lead to an armed conflict. Her leaders seem to have felt that they were ready for war, no matter on how large a scale; and they well knew that Russia had not finished her preparations, nor France either. As for England, she had only a trifling army.

1115. Germany violates Belgian Neutrality. As soon as Austria declared war on Serbia, July 28, Russia began rapidly to mobilize, and Germany, claiming this to be an attack on her, declared war on Russia, August 1. On the same day she

demanded of France, Russia's ally, what she proposed to do. The French government replied that France would take such action as her interests might require; whereupon Germany declared war on France, August 3. But Germany was in such a hurry to strike first that her troops were marching on France a day before war was declared. On August 2 they occupied the neutral country of Luxemburg, in spite of the protests of its ruler. Germany issued an ultimatum to Belgium, giving her twelve hours, from 7 P. M. to 7 A. M., to decide whether she would permit the German troops to cross the little kingdom on their way to France. If she consented, Germany promised to respect her territory and people; if she refused, Germany would treat her as an enemy. Now others as well as the Belgians could see why Germany had constructed such an abundance of railroad sidings close to the Belgian boundary. The Belgian government replied to the German demand with great firmness and dignity, urging that her neutrality had been guaranteed by the powers, including Prussia, and that she should resist any attempt to violate it.

LITTLE BELGIUM BOLDLY REFUSES TO LET BIG GERMANY PASS

A cartoon from *Punch*, used by permission

1116. Great Britain enters the War. It was almost inevitable that Great Britain should be drawn into the conflict. British statesmen made repeated and strenuous efforts to bring about a conference of the powers for the purpose of effecting a peaceful

THE MUNITION WORKS, LE CREUSOT, FRANCE

France has relied much upon its artillery for defense, since Germany has more soldiers, but in the great war of 1914 the Germans had prepared more heavy cannon than the French, who used mainly a lighter gun. The Creusot works are next to the German Krupp works in importance. This picture of them is from an etching by the American artist Mr. Joseph Pennell

A Review of the British Fleet in July, 1914

settlement of the issues between Austria and Serbia, but Germany was determined to prevent such an outcome and to back up Austria. The designs of Germany were now clear to British statesmen. When, on August 1, the German ambassador asked whether England would remain neutral if Germany promised not to violate Belgian territory and urged the British to state the conditions of their neutrality, including a guarantee of the neutrality of France, the suggestion was firmly rejected. Furthermore, on August 2, the British cabinet informed France that the British fleet would give all protection possible if a hostile German fleet came into the Channel or North Sea.

Two days later, learning that German troops were making their way into Belgium, Sir Edward Grey sent an ultimatum to Germany demanding assurances within twelve hours that she would respect Belgian neutrality. The German chancellor replied that military necessity required that the German armies cross Belgium. He told the English ambassador in Berlin that England ought not to enter the war just for the sake of "a scrap of paper." This contemptuous reference to the solemn treaties by which the European powers had guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium roused the anger of the entire outside world. It was the invasion of Belgium which arrayed the English people solidly behind the government when, on August 4, 1914, it declared war on Germany.

1117. The Powers at War in 1914. Japan speedily declared war on Germany, and early in November Turkey decided to join the Central Powers. So within three months Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey were pitted against Serbia, Russia, France, Belgium, England, Montenegro, and Japan. Italy declared herself neutral and not bound to help Austria and Germany, since in the Triple Alliance of 1882 she had pledged her aid only in case they were attacked; she considered that they were now the aggressors and that she was consequently free to keep out of the struggle.

Immediately upon the public announcement that a state of war existed between England and Germany the Germans turned all their pent-up hatred upon England and accused her of being

responsible for the war. Even German statesmen supported this false view. Bethmann-Hollweg informed the Reichstag that England could have made the war impossible if she had plainly told the Russians that she would not permit the trouble between Austria and Serbia to involve the rest of Europe.

1118. Germany indicted by Germans. The assertions of German leaders that England desired war and was responsible for it are without foundation. Certain courageous Germans even dared to confess this freely. Indeed, the chief witness against the kaiser and his advisers was no less a person than the German ambassador in London at the time that the war began, Prince Lichnowsky. He published in 1918 an account of his negotiations with English statesmen during the fatal days just preceding the outbreak of the war. He declared that the English were eager to avert war, and that his own country, together with Austria, not England or France, was responsible for it.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the growth of Prussian militarism. How did the Prussian system affect the other European powers? What is conscription? Explain the naval rivalry between England and Germany.

II. What were the objects and results of the Hague conferences?

III. How did the partition of Africa breed international rivalries? What change did Edward VII make in the foreign affairs of England? What countries were friendly to England in 1914? Trace the history of the Morocco affair.

IV. What interests had Russia and Austria in the Balkans? How did the Balkan wars of 1912–1913 affect Germany, France, and Russia? Give a short account of the Turkish revolution of 1908. In what way did Austria take advantage of the situation in Turkey in 1908? What reason did Italy give for making war on Turkey? What was the outcome of the war? Outline the history of the Balkan wars. What difficulties did Austria's annexation of Bosnia raise?

V. Trace the events in the summer of 1914 which led to the World War. What was meant by the "neutrality" of Belgium? Contrast the German and the English view of the responsibility for the outbreak of war.

CHAPTER XLVI

FIRST YEARS OF THE WORLD WAR (1914–1916)

I. Course of the War in 1914 and 1915

1119. The German Drive on Paris checked at the Marne. The vast German army advanced on France in three divisions, one through Belgium, one through Luxemburg (also a neutral state) down into Champagne, and the third from Metz toward Nancy. The Belgians offered a determined resistance to the advance of the northern division and hindered it for ten days—a delay of vital importance to the French. But the heavy German guns proved too much for the forts around Liège, which were soon battered to pieces, and Brussels was occupied by the enemy, August 20. The French, reënforced by English troops hastily dispatched across the Channel, made their first stand around Namur. This famous fortress, however, immediately collapsed under the fire of the German siege guns, and the French and English rapidly retreated southward. The western division of the German army had come within twenty-five miles of Paris by September 1. The headquarters of the French government were moved to Bordeaux, and the capital prepared for a siege.

The victory of the French, however, in the famous battle of the Marne, under the leadership of General Joffre, put an end to the immediate danger of the Germans' occupying Paris. They were compelled to retreat a little way and took up a position on a line of hills running from Soissons to Rheims. Here they were able to intrench themselves before the French and English could drive them farther back.

1120. Conquest and Ill-treatment of Belgium. After the Germans had given up their first hope of surprising Paris they

proceeded to overrun Belgium. They captured Antwerp, October 10, and conquered the whole country, except a tiny corner southwest of Ostend. It was their hope to push on to Calais and occupy this port nearest to England as a base of attack against the British Isles, but they were checked at the Yser River. They treated the Belgians as a conquered people, exacted huge tributes, partially burned the city of Louvain, brutally executed many civilians, and seized any machinery or supplies they desired. This treatment of a peaceful little neighbor, whose safety from invasion they themselves had solemnly guaranteed, did more to rouse the anger of the rest of the world than any other act of the German government.

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KING ALBERT

1121. The German Occupation of Northeastern France. Thus the first three months of the war saw the Germans in practically complete possession of Belgium and Luxemburg, together with a broad strip of northeastern France, filled with prosperous manufacturing towns, farms and vineyards, and invaluable coal and iron mines. The Germans were ordered to do all they could to destroy the machinery in the factories, cut down the fruit trees, and wreck the mines, so as to disable and impoverish France in every way possible.

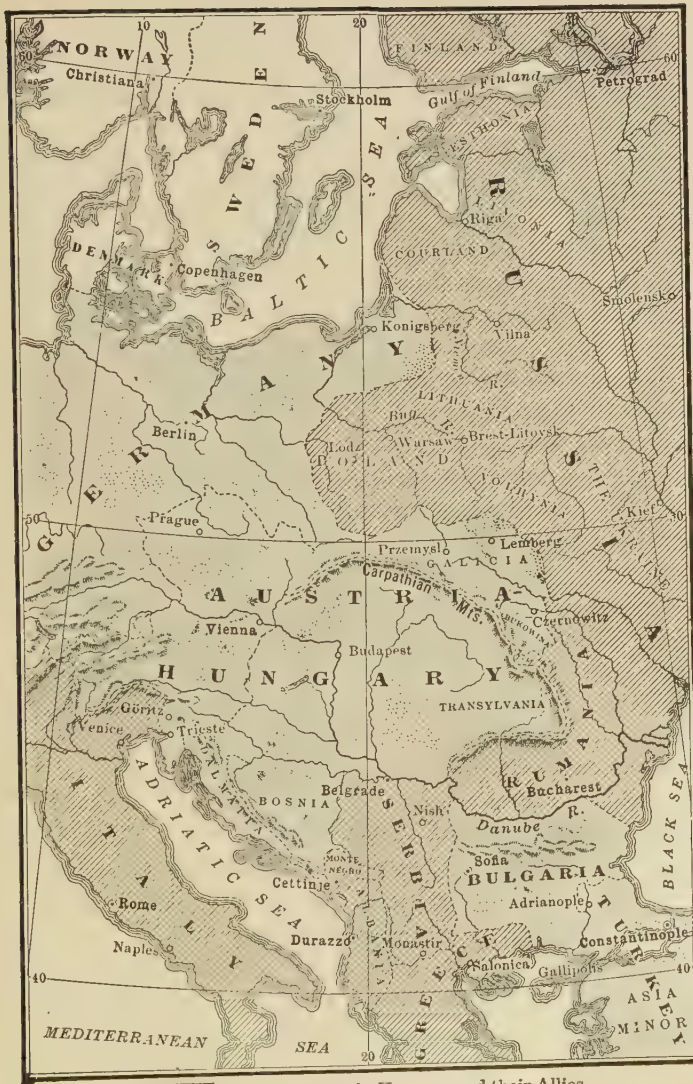
1122. Permanence of the Battle Line in France. The lines established after the battle of the Marne and the check on the Yser did not change greatly in four years, in spite of the constant fighting and the sacrifice of hundreds of thousands of men on both sides. The Germans were not able to push very much

THE WESTERN FRONT, 1914–1917

farther into France, and the Allied forces were almost equally unsuccessful in their repeated attempts, at terrible sacrifice of life, to force the Germans more than a few miles back. Both sides "dug themselves in," and trench warfare went on almost incessantly, with the aid of machine guns, shells, and huge cannon. Airplanes flew hither and thither, observing the enemy's positions and operations and dropping bombs in his midst. Poisonous gases and liquid fire, introduced by Germany, added their horrors to the situation.

1123. The War on the East Front (1914–1915). On the Eastern Front the Russians at first advanced far more rapidly than had been expected. They succeeded in invading East Prussia, but were soon driven out by the German general, Hindenburg, and his army. They made their main attack on the Austrians in Galicia, but were forced to withdraw, owing to the operations of the German and Austrian armies in Poland. During the winter of 1915 the Russians made fierce attempts to pass the Carpathians and invade Austria-Hungary. They failed, however, on account of lack of supplies, and hundreds of thousands of lives were sacrificed in vain. In August, 1915, Russia was forced to surrender Warsaw and other large Polish towns to the Germans, who pushed on beyond Poland and occupied Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia. They therefore were able to take possession of and hold for the time being very important Russian territories in addition to their control of Poland.

1124. Turkey joins the Central Powers, November, 1914. In November, 1914, the Teutonic allies were reënforced by Turkey. The Sultan issued a call to all faithful Mohammedans to wage a holy war on the enemies of Islam. But, contrary to the hopes of Germany, there was no general rising of the Mohammedans in India and Egypt against the British rule. England seized the opportunity to declare Egypt altogether independent of Turkey, December, 1914, and established a new ruler, who was given the title of Sultan of Egypt and accepted an English protectorate over his country. The English also invaded Mesopotamia, and finally captured the famous old city of Bagdad, in March,



Germany-Austria-Hungary and their Allies
Countries at War with Teutonic Allies

THE EASTERN FRONT, 1914–1917

1917. The British also forced back the Turkish army in Palestine and succeeded in capturing the holy city of Jerusalem, in December, 1917.

An attempt of the English and French in 1915 to take Constantinople proved, however, a terrible failure. In April of that year their forces, greatly strengthened by contingents from Australia and New Zealand, who had come to the Mediterranean by way of the Red Sea, tried to force their way up the Dardanelles. The Turks, well supplied with German commanders and equipment, defended themselves with such success that the Allies, in spite of the sacrifice of a hundred thousand men, killed and wounded, were unable to hold their positions on the peninsula of Gallipoli, where they had secured a footing. After some months the English government was obliged to recognize that it had made a tragic mistake, and the attempt was given up.

1125. Italy joins the Allies. In May, 1915, Italy finally decided that she could no longer remain out of the war. Her people believed in the principles for which the Allies were fighting and had no love for Austria. Then, too, it seemed that the opportunity had come to win "Italia Irredenta,"—those portions of the Italian people still unredeemed from Austrian rule who live around Trent, in Istria and the great seaport of Trieste, and along the Dalmatian coast. So this added another "front" which the Central Powers had to defend.

1126. The Belligerents at the Opening of the Second Year of the War. The line-up at the opening of the second year of the war consisted of the Central Powers—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey—opposed to Russia, France, Italy, Great Britain (including Canadians, Australians, New Zealanders, South Africans, and East Indian troops, all ready to shed their blood in the cause of the British Empire), Belgium, Serbia, Japan, and the tiny countries of Montenegro and San Marino,—twelve belligerents in all, scattered over the whole globe. But the war was not destined to stop at this point. Hundreds of millions of people who were at that time still neutral later took up arms against German *Kultur*.

II. The War on the Sea

1127. Extinction of German Commerce. It was the war on the sea that raised the chief problems for the world at large. At the beginning of the war many people supposed that there would soon be a great and perhaps decisive naval engagement between the German and British fleets, but no such thing happened.[1] The Germans kept their dreadnaughts safe in their harbors, protected by cruisers and mines. The German merchant ships took shelter at home or in neutral ports. So German commerce was soon cut off altogether, and England ruled the ocean. Had it not been for the recently discovered and rapidly improved submarines, or U-boats, as they were popularly called, the Germans would have been helpless against the British control of the seas. It was this new kind of warfare that largely determined the course of the conflict of the nations.

1128. The Blockade and the Submarine. It was easy for England to block the German ports of Hamburg and Bremen, the egress from the Kiel Canal, and the outlet from the Baltic without violating the established principles of international law. But the German submarines could still steal out and sink English merchant ships and manage now and then to torpedo a great war vessel. Great Britain claimed the right under these new conditions of naval warfare to force all neutral ships bound for the neutral ports of Holland, Norway, and Sweden to stop and be inspected at Kirkwall, in the Orkney Islands, to see if they were carrying contraband of war—namely, munitions and materials to be used directly or indirectly for military ends—and to make sure that their cargoes were not really destined for Germany. The British soon declared that all shipments of foodstuffs to Germany would be deemed absolute contraband of war, since feeding her fighting men was as necessary for her continuing the war as supplying them with munitions.

[1] On May 31, 1916, a portion of the German fleet ventured out of the Baltic and fell in with a strong detachment of the British fleet. After a few hours the mist, smoke, and darkness put an end to the fight, and no decision was reached.

1129. The Germans extend the Zone of Marine War. This was regarded by the Germans as an obvious attempt "through starvation to doom an entire nation to destruction." The German government thereupon declared that the waters around England should be regarded as within the zone of war, that within this zone all enemy merchant vessels would be sunk, whether it were possible to save the passengers and crews or not. Neutrals were warned that they would be in great danger if they entered the zone. In former days it was possible for a man-of-war to hold up a vessel, and if the cargo was found to be contraband, to capture or sink the vessel after taking off the people on board. But the submarine had no room for extra persons, and the Germans found it much more convenient to torpedo vessels without even the warning necessary to enable the passengers and crew to take to the lifeboats.

1130. The Sinking of the *Lusitania*. In February, 1915, German submarines began to sink not only enemy vessels but neutral ones as well, sometimes giving the people on board warning, but often not. The most terrible example of the ruthlessness of the U-boats was the sinking, without warning, of the great liner *Lusitania*, May 7, 1915, involving the loss of nearly 1200 men, women, and children, including over a hundred American citizens. The Germans hailed this as a heroic deed. They claimed that the vessel was armed and laden with shells, and that the Americans had no business to be on it, since a notice in the New York papers had warned them against traveling on the fated boat. But after careful investigation an American court decided that the vessel was not armed and did not carry any explosives. This act aroused the greatest horror and indignation not only in England and the United States but throughout the rest of the world.

1131. The British Drive (1915). On the Western Front the English forces had steadily increased, until, by the end of September, 1915, Sir John French had a million men under his command. The English had also been very busy producing arms and munitions of war, in which they had been sadly deficient at the opening of the war, and they had greatly added to their supplies

by purchases in the United States. They therefore resolved upon a drive northeast of Arras. After a period of terrific fighting they succeeded in forcing back the German lines two or three miles on a front of fifteen or twenty miles. This gave the world some notion of the difficulty the Allies would have to meet in their attempt to oust the German armies from France and Belgium.

1132. Serbia Overwhelmed; Entrance of Bulgaria into the War. In spite of the English drive, the Germans, who had succeeded in forcing back the Russians in Galicia, now undertook the invasion of Serbia. This encouraged Serbia's bitter enemy, Bulgaria, to declare in favor of the Central Powers and join vigorously in the cruel punishment of her neighbor. In spite of heroic resistance on the part of the Serbians, their country, attacked on two sides, quickly fell into the hands of their enemies.

The British and French had landed troops at the Greek port of Salonica but were unable to prevent the disaster. There was a grave difference of opinion in Greece as to the proper attitude for the government to take. The royal family was regarded as pro-German, but many, especially Greece's chief statesman, Venizelos, favored siding with the Allies. King Constantine managed to maintain the nominal neutrality of his country until the year 1917, when his policies led to his expulsion from Greece.

III. The Campaigns of 1916

1133. The Germans attack Verdun. After the slight success of the British drive the Germans got together a great army under the crown prince and attempted to take the famous fortress of Verdun. The friends of the Allies held their breath as it seemed as if the enemy were going to crush the French and advance once more on Paris. But after months of terrible fighting, February to July, 1916, General Joffre was able to push the Germans back and put an end to the threatened danger.

At the opening of the war England had an available force of less than a hundred thousand men, "a contemptible army," as the kaiser is reported to have scornfully called it. Germany, Russia,

France, had their millions of trained men, owing to their long-established system of universal military service,—conscription, as it is called,—which makes every able-bodied man liable to service. For a time England tried to increase its army by voluntary enlistments, and on the whole succeeded very well. But after much discussion and opposition she introduced (May, 1916)

A Tank

a system of universal compulsory military service, which included all able-bodied men between the ages of 18 and 41 (later, 50).

1134. The Great Battle of the Somme. Shortly after, the long-talked-of Anglo-French drive, the battle of the Somme, began, which was fought for four months, from July to November, 1916, east and northeast of Amiens. Here a new English military invention made its first appearance, the so-called "tanks,"—huge heavily armored motor cars, so built as to break through barbed-wire entanglements and crawl over great holes and trenches. The Germans retreated a few miles, but the cost was terrible, since each side lost six or seven hundred thousand men in killed or wounded.

1135. The Struggle on the Italian Front. While the battle of Verdun was raging, the Italians, who had made but little progress against the strong Austrian fortifications, were suddenly pushed back by a great Austrian drive in May, 1916. By the middle of June they had not only lost the little they had gained but had been forced to evacuate some of their own territory. At this point the Russians, in spite of the loss of Poland (§ 1123), attacked Austria once more and again threatened to press into Hungary. So Austria had to give way in Italy in order to defend her Galician boundary, and the Italians were able not only to regain what they had lost but to advance somewhat on their way, as they hoped, to Trieste.

1136. Rumania Overrun. The brief success of the Russians encouraged Rumania to join in the war on the side of the Allies, who seemed to be getting the better of the Central Powers. She invaded Transylvania, which she had long claimed as properly hers. The Germans, notwithstanding the pressure on the Somme, immediately sent two of their best generals and with the help of the Bulgarians attacked Rumania from the west and south and captured Bucharest, the capital, in December, 1916. About two thirds of Rumania was soon in possession of her enemies, and the Germans could supplement their supplies from her rich fields of grain and abundant oil wells.

1137. Aërial Warfare. For the first time in the history of war men were able to fly high above the contending forces, making observations and engaging in aërial battles. Airplanes are now among the essentials of war, and they bring new horrors in their train. The Germans made repeated air raids on England, apparently with the foolish notion that they were going to intimidate the people. They first used the huge dirigible balloons called Zeppelins, but these were later replaced by airplanes of various kinds. They killed two or three thousand English civilians—men, women, and children—in town and country and destroyed some property. Without accomplishing any important military aims, the Germans increased their reputation for needless brutality and forced the English, for the safety of their unfortified towns, to

make reprisals. English and French airmen dropped bombs on the more accessible German towns, Freiburg, Karlsruhe, and Mannheim, and many military places.

QUESTIONS

I. What led Germany to attack Belgium? Trace the advance of the German armies into France. Describe Germany's treatment of Belgium during her occupation of the country. Give some account of the course of the fighting on the Eastern Front. What was the policy of the *Entente* in regard to Turkey?

II. What policy did England and Germany adopt in marine warfare? What effect did this have on the commerce of neutrals? Compare the situation with that during the Napoleonic wars. What was the policy of the Balkan states?

III. Why did the Germans undertake the drive at Verdun and what was the outcome? Describe the battle of the Somme. What do you know of the conditions of trench warfare? What importance had aircraft in the war?

CHAPTER XLVII

FINAL STAGES OF THE WAR: THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

I. Entrance of the United States into the War

1138. Opinion in the United States. Early in the year 1917 Germany's submarine policy and reckless sinking of neutral ships finally involved her in war with a new antagonist, the great and powerful republic across the Atlantic. The government of the United States had been very patient and long-suffering. When the war broke out President Wilson declared that the government would observe strict neutrality, and he urged American citizens to avoid taking sides in a conflict that did not directly concern them. But it was impossible to remain indifferent when such tremendous events were being reported day by day. The German newspapers in the United States eagerly defended the Central Powers and laid the responsibility for the war at England's door. On the other hand, the great body of the American people were deeply shocked by the invasion of Belgium, by the burning of Louvain, and by the needless destruction of Rheims Cathedral by German guns. They disliked the arrogant talk of the kaiser, and they felt a quick sympathy for France, who had lent such essential aid in the American Revolution. Those of English descent naturally found themselves drawn to the side of England in the great struggle.

1139. Activity of German Agents. So the bitter feelings engendered by war began to show themselves immediately in the United States. German agents and spies were everywhere active, denouncing England and her allies and doing everything in their power to prejudice the people of the United States against Germany's foes. The German government stooped to the most shameful expedients. It even sent to its ambassador, Count von Bernstorff, funds with which to attempt to bribe Congress.

1140. American Protests against Submarine Methods. As time went on President Wilson dispatched note after note to Germany expostulating against the merciless and indiscriminate manner in which the submarines sent vessels to the bottom, not only British ships, like the *Lusitania*, carrying American passengers but American ships and those of other neutral nations. There was often no warning until the torpedo actually struck the ship, and not sufficient time even to take to the lifeboats and face the hazards of a troubled sea. The anger of the American people as a whole against Germany became hotter and hotter, and President Wilson began to be denounced for tolerating any diplomatic relations with the German imperial government, even though the Germans promised to reform their submarine policy in September, 1916.

1141. President Wilson's Efforts for Peace. In December, 1916, after the Central Powers had occupied Poland, Serbia, and Rumania, and Germany seemed to be victorious on all hands, she made what she called a peace offer. She proposed that the belligerents send representatives to some point in a neutral country to consider the terms of settlement. President Wilson seized this occasion to try to get both sides to state their aims and the terms on which they would bring the war to a close. The Allies refused to negotiate, with Germany at the height of her military successes, and the Germans declared that this threw the responsibility for the continuance of the war on the Allies. The war continued, and the United States was speedily drawn into the awful conflict.

1142. Renewed Submarine Frightfulness (February, 1917). At the very moment when the German government was exhibiting an apparent interest in President Wilson's efforts to bring about peace the German military leaders were planning a new and still more ruthless use of their submarines than they had hitherto made.

In January, 1917, England, in order completely to cut off supplies from Germany, extended the area which she declared to be in a state of blockade. Germany then proclaimed to the world that in order to make head against "British tyranny" and England's alleged plan to starve Germany she proposed to establish

a vast barred zone extending far to the west of Great Britain, in which sea traffic with England would be prevented by every available means. In this way she flattered herself that England,

GERMAN WAR ZONE OF FEBRUARY 1, 1917

Late in the year 1917 and early in 1918 the German government extended the barred zone so as to include the islands off the coast of Africa, Madeira, the Cape Verde Islands, and the Azores, in order to cut the routes between Europe and South America

who receives much of her food from distant regions, would soon be reduced to starvation and the war brought to a speedy end. One of the most insulting features of Germany's plan was that a narrow lane was to be left through which the United States was to be permitted to send one ship a week provided it was

painted with bright stripes of color and carried no contraband. By these measures Germany reserved a vast area of the high seas for her murderous enterprises, utterly regardless of every recognized right of neutral nations (see map, p. 631).

1143. The United States enters War with Germany, April 6, 1917. On February 1, 1917, the Germans opened their unrestricted submarine warfare in this great barred zone, and many vessels were sunk. President Wilson broke off diplomatic relations with the German government February 3. The sinkings went on, and popular opinion was more and more aroused against Germany.

It was finally evident that war was unavoidable. President Wilson summoned a special session of Congress and on April 2, 1917, read a memorable address to its members in which he said that Germany had to all intents and purposes declared war on the United States. "Our object," he maintained, "is to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world, as against selfish and autocratic power." The free and self-governed peoples of the world must combine, he urged, "to make the world safe for democracy," for otherwise no permanent peace is possible. He proposed that the United States should fight side by side with Germany's enemies and aid them with liberal loans. Both Houses of Congress approved by large majorities the proposed resolution that the United States had been forced into war. Provisions were made for borrowing vast sums; old forms of taxation were greatly increased and many new ones added. In May, 1917, conscription was introduced, and all able-bodied men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one were declared liable to military service. Preparations were made for training great bodies of troops to be sent across the Atlantic to aid the cause of the Allies and measures were taken for building ships to replace those destroyed by German submarines. The people of the United States showed themselves eager to do their part in the war on autocracy and militarism (§ 1157).

1144. Increase of Belligerents. One result of the entrance of the United States into the war was a great increase in the number of Germany's enemies during the year 1917. Cuba and

Panama immediately followed the example set by the great North American Republic; Greece, after much internal turmoil and dissension, finally, under the influence of Venizelos, joined the Allies; in the latter half of the year Siam, Liberia, China, and Brazil proclaimed war on Germany. The war had become literally a world conflict. The governments of nearly a billion and a half of the earth's population were involved in the amazing struggle. Thirteen hundred and forty millions of people were committed by their rulers to the side of the Allies, and the countries included in the Central European alliance had a total population of about one hundred and sixty millions. So nearly seven eighths of the population of the globe were nominally at war, and of these nine tenths were arrayed against one tenth, led by Prussia. Of course the vast population of India and China played a great part in these figures but had little or no part in the active prosecution of the war. And after the Russian revolution destroyed the old government, that country, with its millions of inhabitants, by the end of 1917 could no longer be reckoned an active factor.

1145. The Neutral Nations. As for the countries which remained neutral, they included a population of perhaps one hundred and ninety millions. Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were far too close to Germany to risk breaking with her, although it would seem that many of their people disapproved of her conduct. Spain and a number of Latin-American states, including Mexico and Chile, held aloof. But no country could escape the burdens and afflictions of a war of such magnitude. Real neutrality was almost impossible. Everywhere taxes and prices rose, supplies were cut off, and business was greatly dislocated.

II. The Russian Revolution; the Bolsheviki

1146. The Russian Revolution (March, 1917). In March, 1917, one of the chief belligerent countries, Russia, underwent such a great internal change as greatly to modify the course of the war and the problem of peace. We must now consider the

astonishing revolution which led to the overthrow of the old Russian despotism and the retirement of Russia from the war.

The world conflict had hardly opened in 1914 before it revealed the corruption, the weakness, the inefficiency, indeed, in some cases, the treason, of the Tsar's court and his imperial officials. The millions of Russians who perished in the trenches of the Eastern Front in vain endeavors to advance into Germany and Austria-Hungary or to stem the tide of German invasion were ill supported by their government. The Duma became unmanageable, and in December, 1916, it passed a resolution declaring that "dark forces" were paralyzing the government and betraying the nation's interests. The Tsar then proceeded to dismiss the liberals from the government and replace them by the most unpopular tyrannical officials he could find. He seemed to be declaring war on every liberal movement and reverting to the methods of Nicholas I. There was a distressing scarcity of food in the cities and a growing repugnance to the continuance of the war.

1147. The Tsar Overthrown. Bread riots broke out in Petrograd in March, 1917, but the troops refused to fire on the people, and the Tsar's government found itself helpless. When ordered to adjourn, the Duma defied the Tsar and called for the establishment of a provisional government. The Tsar, hastening back to Petrograd from the front, was stopped by representatives of the new provisional government on March 15, 1917, and induced to sign his own and his son's abdication in favor of his brother, Grand Duke Michael. But Michael refused the honor unless it were authorized by a constitutional assembly; this amounted to an abdication of the Romanoffs, who had ruled Russia for more than three centuries. There was no longer any such thing in the world as "the autocrat of all the Russias." The Tsar's relatives renounced their rights, his high officials were imprisoned in the very fortress of Peter and Paul where they had sent so many revolutionists, and political prisoners in Russia and Siberia received the joyous tidings that they were

free. The world viewed with astonishment this abrupt and complete collapse of the ancient system of tyranny.

1148. The Socialists gain Control of the Russian Government. A revolutionary cabinet was formed of men of moderate views on the whole, but Alexander Kerensky, a socialist and representative of the Workingmen's and Soldiers' Council, was made minister of justice. The new cabinet declared itself in favor of many reforms, such as liberty of speech and of the press; the right to strike; the substitution of militia for the old police; universal suffrage, including women. But the socialists were not content, and through their Council of Workingmen's and Soldiers' Delegates began to exercise great power. By July, 1917, all the more moderate members of the provisional government had been forced out and their places taken by socialists. A desperate attempt to lead the flagging Russian troops forward to victory against the Austrians utterly failed, and as time went on the demand for an immediate peace "without annexations and indemnities" became louder and bolder.

1149. The Bolshevik Revolution (November, 1917). At length the storm which had been long gathering broke. Early in the revolution a council of workmen's and soldiers' deputies, or "soviet," had been set up in Petrograd and had begun to dispute the authority of the Duma. All over Russia similar soviets, or councils of workmen, soldiers, and peasants, were instituted, and finally, in November, under two leaders, Lenin and Trotzky, supported by soldiers, they overturned the Kerensky government, founding instead "a dictatorship of the proletariat." The faction which engineered this enterprise was known as the Bolsheviki, or "majority men," a term given to them when they constituted a majority of the Russian socialists.

The Bolsheviki proceeded at once to abolish private property in land and capital and institute a "communist system." They denounced the war as an "imperialist struggle for trade and territory," and they called upon the warring powers to join them in a peace conference. Receiving no replies, they opened the Russian

archives and published secret treaties drawn up by the European powers, showing up the selfish aims of the old-fashioned diplomacy.

1150. The Peace of Brest-Litovsk. Then, late in December, the Bolsheviki opened peace negotiations with the Central Powers at Brest-Litovsk, on the eastern Polish boundary. Meanwhile Finland and the Ukraine, which comprises a great part of southern Russia, declared themselves independent and established governments of their own, under German influence, it is supposed. So on March 3, 1918, the representatives of the Bolsheviki concluded a peace with the Central Powers in which they agreed to "evacuate" the Ukraine and Finland, and surrendered Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Livonia, and certain districts in the Caucasus (see maps, pp. 552, 621), all of which were to exercise the right of establishing such government as they pleased. Shortly after, the capital of Russia was transferred from Petrograd to Moscow. The result of this peace was that Russia was dismembered and all the western and southern regions were, for the time being, under the strong influence of the Germans. (For a further account of Russian conditions see §§ 1189 ff.)

III. Issues of the War

1151. Grave Problems antedating the War. The war naturally rendered acute every chronic disease which Europe had failed to remedy in the long period of general peace. France had never given up hopes of regaining Alsace-Lorraine, which had been wrested from her after the war of 1870–1871 (§ 924). The Poles continued to aspire to recover their national independence. Both the northern Slavs of Bohemia and the southern Slavs in Croatia, Bosnia, and Slavonia were discontented with their relations to Austria-Hungary, of which they formed a part. The Irredentists of Italy had long laid claim to important coast lands belonging to Austria. Serbia and Bulgaria were bitterly at odds over the arrangements made at the close of the Balkan Wars (§§ 1104–1107). Rumania longed for Transylvania and Bukowina. Then there were the old questions as to what was to be done with

"Middle Europe" under the Control of the Teutonic Allies at the End of 1917

the remaining vestiges of the Turkish empire and who was to control Syria and Mesopotamia. In the Far East Japan's interests in China offered an unsolved problem. There were also the serious questions raised by the necessity of meeting the discontent with British rule in India and Ireland.

1152. New Problems due to the War. The progress of the war had added new territorial perplexities. The Central Powers at the end of 1917 were in military possession of Belgium, Luxemburg, northeastern France, Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania (see map, p. 637). Great Britain had captured Bagdad and Jerusalem. In Africa all Germany's colonies were in the hands of her enemies, and in Australasia her possessions had been taken over by Japan and Australia. Were all these regions conquered by one or the other of the belligerent groups to be given back or not? Then what about Belgium, whose people had been mulcted and abused and pillaged by their conquerors; and what of northeastern France wantonly devastated? Was not reparation due to these unhappy victims of the war?

1153. War on War. But all these questions seemed to many high-minded people of minor importance compared with the overwhelming world problem, How should mankind conspire to put an end to war forever? The world of today, compared with that of Napoleon's time, when the last great international struggle took place, is so small, the nations have been brought so close together, they are so dependent on one another, that it seemed as if the time had come to join in a last, victorious *war on war.* It required a month or more to cross the Atlantic in 1815; now less than six days are necessary, and airplanes might soon be soaring above its waves far swifter than any steamer. Formerly the oceans were great barriers separating America from Europe, and the Orient from America; but, like the ancient bulwarks around medieval cities, they have now become highways on which men of all nations hasten to and fro. Before the war express trains were regularly traversing Europe from end to end at a speed of forty to fifty miles an hour, and the automobile vied

with the locomotive in speed, whereas at the time of the Congress of Vienna no one could get about faster than a horse could travel. The telegraph and telephone enabled news to be flashed to the most distant parts of the earth more quickly than Louis XVIII could send a message from one part of Paris to another. The wireless apparatus kept vessels, no matter how far out at sea, in constant touch with the land.

1154. Modern Interdependence of Nations. Nations now depend on one another for food, clothes, and every sort of necessity and refinement. Britain hoped to end the war by cutting off Germany from her usual communication with other countries, and Germany flattered herself she could starve England by sinking the thousands of vessels which supply her tables with bread and meat. Even the rumor of war upsets the stock exchanges throughout the world. Nations read one another's books, profit by one another's scientific discoveries and inventions, and go to one another's plays. Germans, Italians, French, and Russians contribute to musical programs listened to in New York, Valparaiso, or Sydney. We continue to talk of *independent* nations, but only a few isolated, squalid savage tribes can be said any longer to be independent of other peoples. In an ever-increasing degree America and Europe have become interdependent, and their fate and fortunes tend to merge into the history of the whole world.

1155. International Agreements before the War. The war only greatly emphasized all these things, which were being recognized in the previous quarter of a century. The Hague conferences, the establishment of the Hague international tribunal, the various arbitration treaties, had all been directed toward the suppression of the ancient plague of war. International arrangements in regard to coinage, postal service, commerce, and transportation had encouraged good understanding and coöperation. Innumerable international societies, congresses, and expositions had brought foreign peoples together and illustrated their manifold common interests.

1156. Cost of Preparedness. The old problem of armaments, the possibility of getting rid of the crushing burden and constant

peril of vast standing armies and the competition in dreadnaughts and cruisers, was made a burning question by the war, because the European nations involved were bound to emerge from the conflict either bankrupt or with unprecedented financial obligations. At the same time the progress of the deadly art of killing one's fellow men advanced so rapidly, with the aid of scientific discovery and the stress of war, that what was considered adequate military preparedness before the war would seem absurdly inadequate after its close. Giant guns, aircraft, "tanks," and poisonous gases have, among other things, been added to the older devices of destruction, and the submarine suggested a complete revolution in naval strategy.

1157. "Militarism" and "Autocracy." Everyone knew that Germany had the strongest, best-organized, best-equipped army in Europe, but when it was suddenly hurled against Belgium in August, 1914, the world was aghast. The spoliation of Belgium, the shooting down of civilians, the notorious atrocities of the German soldiers, the cold-blooded instructions to the officers to intimidate the civil population by examples of cruel punishments (*Schrecklichkeit*), the scandalous and criminal activities of German spies, the ruthless submarines, the slaughter of noncombatants in the air raids over England, the destruction of the noble cathedral of Rheims by German gunners, the "Song of Hate," in which a German poet summoned his fellow countrymen to execrate England with undying animosity,—all these things combined to produce world-wide horror and apprehension. To their adversaries the Germans, so righteous, so peace-loving, so favored of God! as they seemed to themselves, were "Huns," led by a modern Attila, ready to deluge the world in order to realize the dream of world domination.

The fatal readiness of the German military force for instant action had also been thoroughly impressed on the world. The kaiser had but to say, "The country is attacked,"—and he was the judge of what constituted an attack,—posters would appear everywhere ordering those liable to service to be at a certain railroad station at a given hour, under penalty of imprisonment or

Marshal Foch

MARSHAL HAIG

death, to be dispatched anywhere the general staff ordered. When mobilization was proclaimed, the civil government immediately gave way to military rule throughout the length and breadth of the land. At the opening of August the German people knew that they were going to war with Russia, but the soldiers sent to the Belgian boundary had no idea where *they* were going. This is what Germany's enemies called *militarism* and *autocracy*.

1158. The Fourteen Points. Again, on January 8, 1918, President Wilson stated a program of world peace which embraced fourteen points. The chief of these were no secret international understandings or treaties; absolute freedom of navigation in peace and war, except when portions of the sea might be closed by international understanding; removal of economic barriers and reduction of armaments; impartial adjustment of all colonial claims; restoration of Belgium and evacuation of territories occupied by Teutonic allies during the war; righting what he deemed the wrong done to France when Alsace-Lorraine was seized by Germany; freeing of Asiatic dependencies of Turkey; and the formation of a general association of nations for the purpose of insuring the independence of great and small states alike. This program was heartily and unreservedly approved by the representatives of the English workingmen and made clearer than any previous declaration the purposes of the United States in entering the war against Germany.

IV. Course of the War after the Entrance of the United States

1159. The Western Front, 1917. In addition to the increase in Germany's enemies the chief military events of 1917 were the following: In March the Germans decided to shorten their lines on the Western Front from Noyon on the south to Arras on the north. They withdrew, devastating the land as they went, and the French and English were able to reoccupy about one eighth of the French territory that the enemy had held so long. The

Germans were disturbed by fierce attacks while establishing their new line of defense, but in spite of great sacrifices on the part of the French and English, and especially of the Canadians, who fought with special heroism, this "Hindenburg" line was so well fortified that it held, and with slight exceptions continued to hold during the year. Attempts to take the important mining town of Lens and the city of Cambrai were not successful for another year, but the terrible slaughter went on and tens of thousands were killed every week.

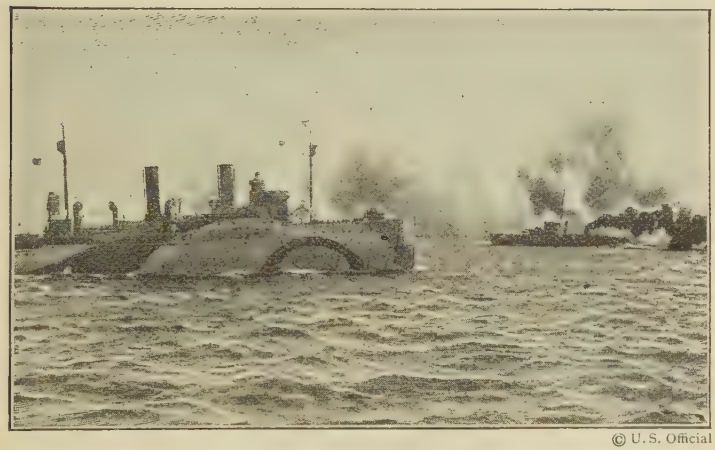
1160. The German Drive of March, 1918. On March 21, 1918, the Germans began a great drive on the Western Front with the hope of gaining a decisive victory and forcing the Allies to sue for peace. Germany was in a hurry, for she knew that her U-boat warfare was not reducing England to starvation, that the United States troops were beginning to arrive in ever-increasing numbers, and that the German plans for getting supplies from Russia were meeting with little success. Moreover, the German people were suffering all sorts of bitter hardships and might at any time begin to complain that the final victory which the kaiser had been promising from the first was too long in coming.

For some days the Germans were victorious and were able to push back the British almost to Amiens. But the French rushed to the aid of their allies; the drive was checked and Amiens, with its important railroad connections, was saved. No previous conflict of the war had been so terrible as this, and it is estimated that over four hundred thousand men were killed, wounded, or captured. The Germans, however, only regained the devastated territory from which they had retired a year before, and their fierce efforts to advance further failed.

1161. Foch Commander in Chief. The grave danger in which the Allies found themselves finally convinced them that their safety lay in putting all their forces—French, British, Italian, and the newly arriving troops from America—under a single commander in chief. It was agreed that the French general Ferdinand Foch (appointed March 28, 1918) was the most likely to lead

them all to victory; and this confidence in his skill and character was justified. Almost immediately matters began to mend.

1162. The Final Efforts of the Germans. Everyone knew that the Germans would soon make a second drive somewhere on the long front of one hundred and fifty miles, but at what point the Allies could only conjecture. The new blow came April 9, when



© U. S. Official

British Vessel throwing up Smoke Screen to protect an American Transport

The British marine greatly aided in securing the safe passage of American troops. Note the "camouflage" (disguise coloring) of the transport

the kaiser's armies attempted to break through the British defenses between Arras and Ypres, with the intention of reaching Calais and the English Channel. The suspense was tense for a time, but after retreating a few miles the British made a stand and were ordered by their commander to die, if necessary, at their posts. This checked the second effort of the Germans to break through. In the latter part of May the German armies attempted a third great attack, this time in the direction of Paris. They took Soissons and Château-Thierry, which brought them within about forty miles of the French capital. In June they made a feebler

effort to extend to the south the territory gained in the first drive. Here they were opposed for the first time by the American troops, who fought with great bravery and ardor. And here the German successes came to an end.

1163. United States Troops in Action. The first contingent of United States troops had arrived in France in June, 1917,

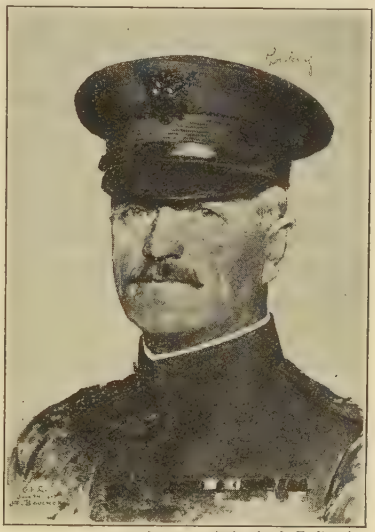
American Troops marching to take their Places at the Front in the Marne Valley

under the command of General Pershing, who had a long and honorable record as a military commander. He had in his younger days fought Indians in the West; he served in the Spanish War and later subdued the fierce Moros in the Philippine Islands.

By the first of July, 1918, about a million American troops had reached France and were either participating actively in the fierce fighting or being rapidly and efficiently trained. They had taken their first town by the end of May, 1918, and gained great distinction for themselves by coöperating with the French in frustrating the German attempt to break through at Château-Thierry.

Northwest of that town they forced back, early in June, the picked troops of the kaiser sent against them. In these conflicts the American marines were especially conspicuous.

1164. The German Tide Turned. During the following weeks the Germans lost tens of thousands of men in minor engagements and, finally, on July 15, 1918, made a last great effort to take Rheims and force their way to Paris, but this drive was speedily turned into a retreat. During the following month the combined efforts of the French and Americans served to drive the Germans far back from the Marne and put an end to their hopes of advancing on Paris. The French general Mangin warmly praised the valor of the Americans during these "splendid" days when it was his privilege to fight with them "for the deliverance of the world." Then the British began an offensive on the Somme, east and south of Amiens. By the end of September the Germans had been pressed back to the old Hindenburg line; this was even pierced at some points, and the Allied troops were within a few miles of the Lorraine boundary.



From a painting by J. F. Bouchor

GENERAL PERSHING

1165. American Soldiers in the Last Phase. The American troops in France, numbering slightly over two million men before the armistice was signed, on November 11, 1918, were scattered along the whole Western Front, and it is estimated that nearly one million four hundred thousand actually took part in the fearful struggle against the Germans.[1] It is impossible to mention

[1] The United States proposed to have at least four million men in France by June 30, 1919. The limits of the draft were extended so as to include all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five.

here all the battles in which they fought valiantly, side by side with the French or British, as the hosts of the enemy were rapidly pushed back. In the middle of September the Americans distinguished themselves by taking the St. Mihiel salient and bringing their lines within range of the guns of the great German fortress of Metz. Reënforcing the British, they performed prodigies of valor in the capture of the St. Quentin canal tunnel far to the north, where thousands of lives were sacrificed. In the Argonne Forest, and especially in the capture of Sedan, on November 7, the United States troops played a conspicuous part. In the months from June to November, 1918, the battle casualties of the American expeditionary forces—killed, wounded, missing, and prisoners—amounted to about three hundred thousand.

1166. Conditions in Russia. On the other fronts the fortunes of war were turning in favor of the Allies. Germany, instead of being able to get supplies from demoralized Russia, met resistance at every point. The people of the Ukraine resented her domination and began to look to the Allies to assist them in forming their new republic. In Finland civil war raged between the "White Guard" (Nationalist) and the "Red Guard" (Bolshevik), while English and American troops on the Murmansk coast to the north coöperated with the anti-Bolsheviki to oppose the extremists then in power.

At Vladivostok, far away across Siberia, English, Japanese, and American forces landed with the object of working westward through Siberia and, as they hoped, restoring order. Among the enemies of the Bolsheviki was a Czechoslovak army, composed of former Austrian subjects, who had deserted to fight in Russia for the Allies.

1167. Bulgaria capitulates (September 29, 1918). As a part of the great forward movement organized by General Foch, the combined Serbian, Greek, English, and French forces in the Balkans once more became active in Serbia and rapidly pushed back the Bulgarians, who, with the help of the Germans and Austrians, had overrun the country three years before. Neither Germany nor Austria were in a position to send aid to their ally,

and on September 29, 1918, the Bulgarians threw up their hands and asked for an armistice. This was granted on condition of absolute surrender. The defection of Bulgaria proved decisive, and it was clear that Turkey could not keep up the fight when cut off from her Western allies, and that Austria-Hungary, open to invasion through Bulgaria, must soon yield.

1168. Turkey Surrenders (October 31). Turkey was the next to give up the fight. In Palestine General Allenby followed up the capture of Jerusalem (December, 1917) by the relentless pursuit of the Turkish armies. The English and French speedily conquered Syria, taking the great towns of Damascus and Beirut, and the Syrians could now celebrate their final deliverance from the century-long, cruel subjugation to the Turks. The Turkish army in Mesopotamia was also captured by the English. So Turkey was quickly forced to follow Bulgaria's example and accepted the terms of surrender imposed by the Allies (October 31).

V. Fall of the Hohenzollern and Hapsburg Dynasties and Close of the War

1169. The Plight of the Germans. Thus the loudly heralded "peace drive" of the Germans had turned into a hasty retreat on the Western Front, and their Eastern allies had dropped away. The oncoming troops from the United States, steadily streaming across the Atlantic, brought new hope to the Allies; for the Americans were fresh and brave and full of enthusiasm, and they were backed by a great and rich country, which had thrown its well-nigh inexhaustible resources on the side of the war-weary Allies in their fight against Prussianism.

The Germans began to see that they had been grossly deceived by their leaders. The ruthless use of the U-boats had not succeeded in subduing England, but it had aroused this new and mighty enemy across the Atlantic, whose armies found themselves able to cross the ocean in spite of Germany's submarines. The Germans had forced shameful treaties upon the former Russian provinces with the purpose of making the poor, discouraged, and

famine-stricken people help support the German armies. This plan failed to relieve German distress; her commerce was ruined, her reputation lost, her national debt tremendous, with no hope of forcing her enemies to pay the bills. She had no real friends, and now she was deserted by both her Eastern allies. Austria-Hungary alone continued feebly to support her against a world coalition brought together in common abhorrence of her policy and aims.

1170. Austria Collapses (November 3). But even Austria-Hungary was fast giving way. Torn by internal dissension and the threatened revolt of her subject nationalities, disheartened by scarcity of food and by the reverses on the Western Front, she sent a note to President Wilson, October 7, requesting that an armistice be considered. By the end of the month her armies were retreating before the Italians, who in a second battle of the Piave not only swept the Austrians out of northern Italy but quickly occupied Trent and the great seaport of Trieste. On November 3 Austria-Hungary unconditionally surrendered, accepting the severe terms that the Allies imposed on her.

But Austria-Hungary had already disappeared from the map of Europe. The Czechoslovak republic had been proclaimed, and the Jugoslavs no longer recognized their former connection with Austria and Hungary. Hungary itself was in revolt and was proclaimed a republic. Under these circumstances the Hapsburg emperor of Austria and king of Hungary abdicated, November 11.

1171. Germany asks for Peace. Germany herself was on the verge of dissolution as it proved. Early in October it seems to have become apparent to her military rulers that there was no possibility of stopping the victorious advance of the Allies, and the imperial chancellor opened a correspondence (transmitted through the Swiss minister) with President Wilson in regard to an armistice and peace. President Wilson made it plain that the Allies would not stop their advance except on condition that Germany surrender, and on such terms that it could not possibly renew the war. "For," the President added, in his third note, "the nations of the world do not and cannot trust the word of those who have hitherto been the masters of German policy."

German Delegates arriving within the French Lines, to secure Terms of the Armistice from Marshal Foch. (From a Drawing by a French Official Artist)

One of the most dramatic events in history occurred when the German delegates, traveling in automobiles bearing the white flag, made their way to the headquarters of the Allied Generalissimo. There the Germans made their final advance, not as conquerors, as they had arrogantly boasted that they would, but as suppliants for peace, admitting their overwhelming defeat

THE SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN FLEET

A view taken from one of the boats of the British navy, showing the arrival of the German fleet when it surrendered to the Allied fleet in accordance with the terms laid down in the armistice

1172. The Hohenzollerns Overthrown. The German War Council, including the kaiser and crown prince, made a vain effort to save the old system. General Ludendorff, especially conspicuous for his offensive German spirit, was sent off, and the Allies were informed that far-reaching changes in the government had been undertaken which assured the people a complete control not only over the government but over the military power (October 27).

Soon the German government began to deal directly with General Foch in its eagerness to secure an armistice at any cost, for a great social revolution was imminent. Moreover, the Allied forces were closing in on Germany all along the line from the North Sea to the Swiss boundary, and the Germans were retreating with enormous losses of men and supplies. On November 9, to the astonishment of the world, it was announced that his Majesty, Emperor William II, had abdicated. He soon fled to Holland, and that world menace, the House of Hohenzollern, was a thing of the past. The king of Bavaria had been forced off his throne the day before, and all the former monarchies which composed the German Empire were speedily turned into republics. On November 10 a revolution took place in Berlin, and a socialist leader, Friedrich Ebert, assumed the duties of chancellor with the consent of the previous chancellor and all the secretaries of state. Even Prussia had become a republic overnight. The German Empire of Bismarck and William I was no more.

1173. Terms of the Armistice. Meanwhile negotiations in regard to an armistice were in progress. Representatives of the German government made their way across the lines and met General Foch, November 8, and received the terms which the Allies had drawn up.

The Germans were required to evacuate within two weeks all the territory they had occupied—Belgium, northeastern France, Luxemburg, as well as Alsace-Lorraine. Moreover, the German forces were to retire beyond the right bank of the Rhine, and that portion of Germany which lies west of the river was to be occupied by troops of the Allies. All German troops in territories formerly

belonging to Austria-Hungary, Rumania, Turkey, and Russia were to be immediately withdrawn. Germany was to hand over her war vessels, surrender all her submarines and vast supplies of war material, and put her railroads and all means of communication on the left bank of the Rhine at the disposal of the Allies. These and other provisions were designed to make any renewal of the war on Germany's part absolutely impossible. Hard as were the terms, the Germans accepted them promptly, and on November 11 the armistice was signed. The World War was now at an end.

1174. Cost in Property. It is estimated that during the World War nearly sixty million men were mobilized. Of these nearly eight million were killed in battle and over eighteen million wounded. Of those who recovered perhaps a quarter or more were permanently mutilated or crippled for life. The loss among the civilian populations was tremendous owing to famine, disease, and massacres, amounting to perhaps seventeen millions of lives.

The national debts of the nations participating in the war were in the case of the Central Powers raised from about five to forty-four billions of dollars, and in the case of the Allies from twenty-one to eighty-six. Five thousand six hundred and twenty-two British merchant ships were sunk, nearly half of them with their crews on board. The French Chamber of Deputies calculated that the damage done by the Germans in northern France amounted to towards thirteen billions of dollars. These figures give some hint of the really unimaginable costs of the conflict in life and treasure.

1175. Sacrifices of the United States. When our own country entered the war all the other combatants were worn and weary with the great struggle. Considering the population and vast wealth of the United States, our sacrifices in men and goods were slight compared with what the European belligerents suffered; but these sacrifices were terrible enough to make plain to us the unutterable horrors of war and the absolute necessity of coöperating with the rest of the world in preventing the recurrence of another such stupendous catastrophe.

QUESTIONS

I. What was the attitude of the people of the United States toward the war? What differences of opinion existed? What problems had the government to face? Sketch the policy of President Wilson. Draw a map based on Lesson XI of Bishop and Robinson's "Practical Map Exercises in Medieval and Modern History" and locate geographical names in assignments I and II. What did the Germans mean by "frightfulness" (*Schrecklichkeit*)? What led to the declaration of war by the United States on Germany? Give a list of the powers at war with Germany and her allies in 1918. Give the chief military operation of 1917.

II. Describe the Russian revolution of 1917. What were the aims of Kerensky? What were the objects of the Bolsheviki? Give the terms of the peace of Brest-Litovsk.

III. What were the chief sources of international rivalry and misunderstanding before the World War? What new problems were added by the war? What is your attitude in regard to war? What makes war more disastrous now than it was in Napoleon's time? What do you understand by German *Kultur*? How did the German government and military system appear to Germany's enemies? Give some of the chief items in the Fourteen Points.

IV. Describe the German drive of 1918. What part did the United States troops play? Why do you suppose that the Germans were unable to maintain their positions? What members of the German alliance first surrendered?

V. Describe the fall of the Hohenzollern dynasty. What were the terms of the armistice?

CHAPTER XLVIII

THE PEACE OF VERSAILLES; EUROPE AFTER THE WORLD WAR

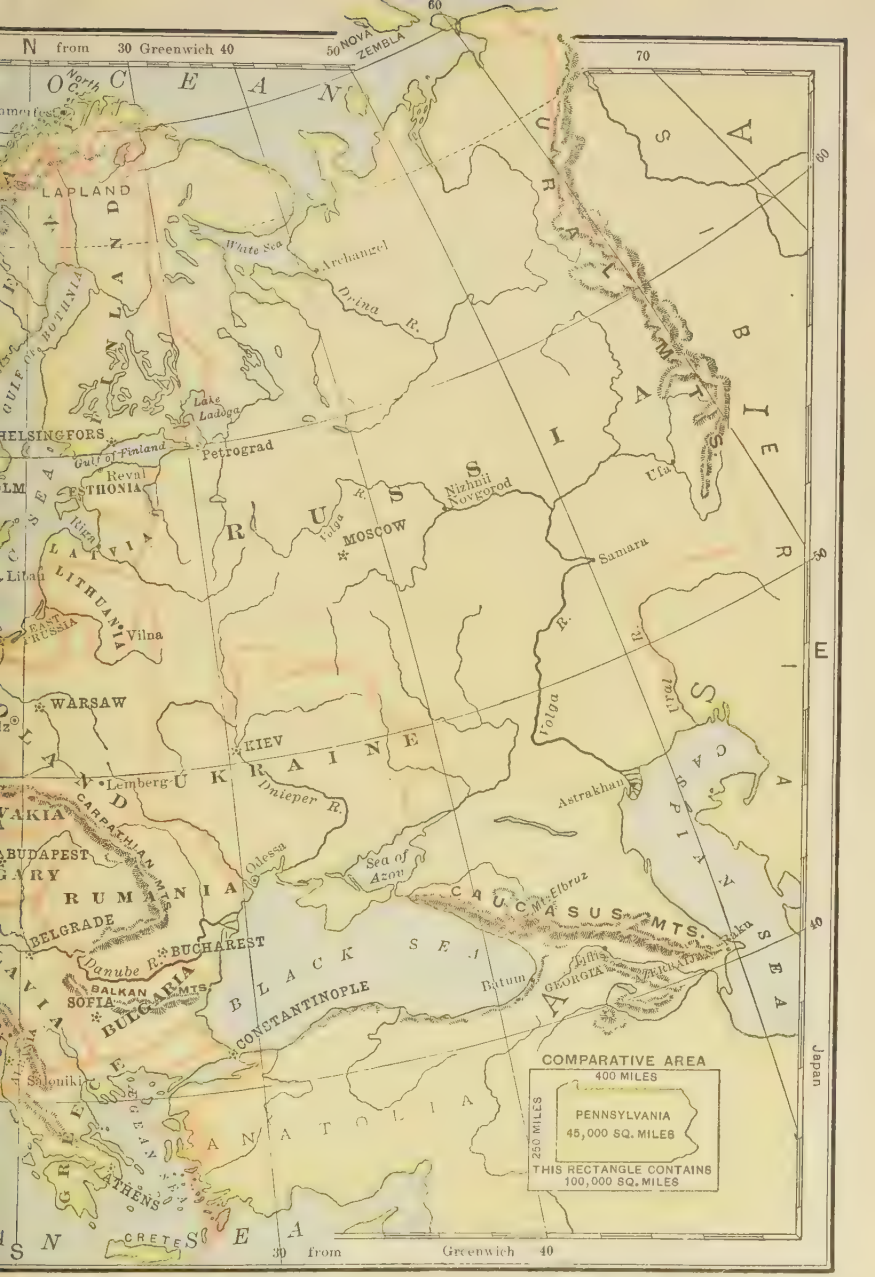
I. Terms of the Peace

1176. The Peace Conference. The Allies decided that their representatives should meet in Paris and the neighboring Versailles to settle the terms of peace that they would impose on the vanquished. Five great powers—Great Britain, France, the United States, Italy, and Japan—took a dominant part in all the discussions and in the final decisions. But there were delegates from the British dominions,—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and India; from Brazil and eleven other of the Latin-American republics; from Belgium, Serbia, Greece, and Rumania; from the new states of Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hejaz; from the republic of China, Siam, and the African state of Liberia. So thirty-two states, scattered all over the globe, had their representatives on hand to take part in, or at least watch, the momentous proceedings. No nation which had remained neutral in the war was included in the negotiations.

1177. How the Treaty was Drafted. The public sessions—the first of which was held January 18, 1919—were rare and accomplished little. The work was done by committees reporting to the "Big Five." President Wilson, Lloyd George, and the aged Clemenceau were by far the most conspicuous personalities in the deliberations. President Wilson was especially intent on having his plan of a League of Nations incorporated in the treaty as a safeguard against future wars. Clemenceau represented the great anxiety of his nation so to weaken Germany that she could never again attack France as she had done in 1914. At one time it seemed as if the five powers would fall out among themselves

Settled boundaries Unsettled boundaries

Boundary of the Zone of the Straits



Sovereignty to be determined by popular vote

Areas under control of the League of Nations

over the question whether Shantung should be given back to China or be turned over to Japan, and whether the city of Fiume should go to Italy. Nevertheless an agreement was finally reached

THE "BIG THREE"

Lloyd George (to the left), Clemenceau, and President Wilson returning from Versailles after the signing of the Treaty of Peace with Germany

on all the intricate questions that had to be settled, and the treaty with Germany, which would fill about two hundred and fifty pages of the size of the one you are now reading, was submitted to and approved by the whole Peace Conference, May 6.

1178. Germany forced to sign the Treaty, June 28, 1919. When the Germans learned the terms of the treaty they denounced it as vindictive, and ruinous to their country. They were helpless, however, and their representatives reluctantly signed it on June 28, 1919, in the very palace at Versailles where William I and Bismarck had proclaimed the German Empire in 1871. Just five years to a day had elapsed since the murder of the archduke had given the immediate excuse for a war, which the Germans had so confidently entered, to come out humiliated beyond belief.

1179. Reduction of Germany's Power. Germany gave up Alsace-Lorraine to France; she ceded a great part of her provinces of Posen and West Prussia to the restored Polish Republic and agreed that some of her other eastern possessions might join Poland if the people so desired. She granted a similar privilege to the inhabitants of Schleswig, should they wish to join Denmark. She surrendered all her colonies in Africa and the Pacific, to be turned over to the British Empire, France, and Japan.

1180. The End of German Militarism. The German army was never to exceed one hundred thousand men, and compulsory military service was to be abolished. Germany's fighting vessels were reduced to twelve, and she was not to use submarines. The forts on the eastern bank of the Rhine and the great fortress of Heligoland were to be destroyed. The Allies were to continue to occupy the west bank of the river Rhine until the terms of the treaty should be carried out. Germany was neither to import nor export munitions of war and was to produce them only in a limited amount.

1181. The German Indemnity. Germany was made to assume responsibility for the infinite damage she had done to the Allied nations during the war. She was to replace all the merchant ships she had destroyed, by turning over most of her own fleet and by constructing new vessels. She was required to pay an indefinite but huge indemnity—some five billions of dollars at the start and such additions as the International Reparations Commissions should deem necessary—to make up for the devastation wrought by her armies. The coal deposits of the Saar basin were given to

SIGNING OF THE TREATY OF PEACE IN THE HALL OF MIRRORS AT VERSAILLES, JUNE, 1919

© Louis Orr

CELEBRATION IN STRASSBURG OF THE RETURN OF PEACE AND THE REUNION OF ALSACE WITH FRANCE

France as part of the indemnity for her special losses. The German treaty was followed by agreements with Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey.

1182. Changes in the Map of Europe. The map of Europe was greatly changed as a result of the World War. Germany, as we have seen, was considerably reduced in size, and her military power was carefully restricted. The ancient domain of the Hapsburgs, Austria-Hungary, was completely disintegrated. Austria acknowledged the complete independence of Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, and Jugoslavia—a new monarchy made up of Serbia, the Croats, Slovenes, and little Montenegro. German Austria became a small independent republic. Hungary was greatly reduced by the loss of territories which became part of Czechoslovakia, Rumania, and Jugoslavia. To the north of Poland the new independent states of Lithuania, Latvia, Esthonia, and Finland now appeared on the map, created at the expense of the old Russian Empire.

Italy now extended to the north and east of the Adriatic, and Greece across the Ægean Sea. The former empire of the Sultan of Turkey was reduced to Constantinople and Asia Minor, and new states seemed to be emerging in the Caucasus, Syria, and Mesopotamia. In general the political divisions on the map now corresponded far more nearly than ever before with racial lines. This is one of the most unmistakable and promising results of the war, as it removes one of the old sources of misunderstandings.

II. The League of Nations

1183. Organization of the League of Nations. The first and most important section of the treaty with Germany, however, is the Covenant of the League of Nations, one of the most significant and far-reaching documents in the history of mankind. The League was to be composed of all those fully self-governing states and colonies in the world that might desire to join. In the beginning, however, Germany and her allies were temporarily excluded, and Russia and Mexico were not to be invited to join until

they had established thoroughly stable governments. The League was to have its permanent offices and staff at Geneva, and was to be made up of an *Assembly* in which each of the members, including the British dominions, had one vote, and a *Council* made up of the representatives of the five great powers (the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan), to which others might later be added, and of four states to be selected from time to time by the Assembly. The Assembly and Council were to meet at stated intervals, the Council at least once a year. All important decisions required a unanimous vote.

1184. Provisions for the Prevention of War. Any war or threat of war, or any matter affecting the peace of the world, is declared in the Covenant a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League is to take any action it may deem wise to safeguard the peace of nations. Members of the League agree to submit any dispute which might lead to war either to arbitration or to investigation by the Council or Assembly. If they submit the dispute to arbitration, they pledge themselves to carry out the award made and not to resort to war. If they submit the dispute to inquiry, the Council or Assembly must fully investigate the matter and, within six months after the submission of the dispute, make a report and recommendations in regard to it. Should this report and recommendations be unanimously agreed to by all the powers except those which are parties to the dispute, the latter agree not to go to war in the matter. If the recommendations are not unanimous, the parties to the dispute pledge themselves in no case to resort to war for three months after the report is made.

Should any member resort to war in disregard of these agreements, it is deemed to have committed an act of war against all the governments and states which are members of the League, and the latter agree to sever all trade and financial relations with the offending state and to prohibit all intercourse between its citizens and their own. The members of the League also undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and political independence of one another.

The Covenant of the League also provides for a permanent Court of International Justice. The Council of the League is to prepare plans for the reduction of armaments and to control the manufacture of munitions and implements of war. All treaties are to be registered with the League and made public.

1185. System of Mandates. Certain territories and semi-civilized peoples formerly belonging to the Central Powers, and not yet able to stand by themselves,—parts of the Turkish Empire, of Central and Southwest Africa, and of the Southern Pacific Islands,—are declared to be under the guardianship of the League. By a system of so-called *mandates* the tutelage of such peoples is to be intrusted to "advanced" nations, as *mandatories,* which are to seek to promote their well-being and development. The authority of the nations acting as mandatories is to be clearly defined, and they are to report annually to the League.

1186. International Plan for bettering Conditions of Labor. Under the general supervision of the League of Nations the treaty also establishes a very important International Labor Organization on the ground that "the well-being, physical, moral, and intellectual, of the industrial wage-earners is of supreme international importance." This labor organization is designed to improve working conditions throughout the world, and to secure fair conditions of labor for men, women, and children.

1187. The United States Senate refuses to ratify the Treaty of Versailles. President Wilson had tried to give the League of Nations the chief place in the discussions at Versailles. He had said before the United States entered the war: "There can be no sense of safety and equality among the nations if great preponderating armaments are henceforth to continue . . . to be built up and maintained. The statesmen of the world must plan for peace, and nations must adjust and accommodate their policy to it as they have planned for war and made ready for pitiless contest and rivalry." The President did all he could on his return from Europe to secure the adoption of the treaty including the Covenant of the League of Nations. But the opposition of the Senate was too strong, and it refused to ratify the peace of Versailles.

1188. Attitude in the United States toward the League. There was much difference of opinion in the United States in regard to the wisdom of joining the League of Nations. Many felt that to join the League would be to desert the old policy of isolation and independence, which they felt to be safer than to run the risk of becoming involved in what Washington called "entangling alliances." It was urged that there was more danger of war if the United States joined the League than if it kept out. Moreover, many urged that by joining the League the United States would sacrifice some of its sovereignty and right of complete self-determination.

On the other hand there was an important group who claimed that the United States could not stand aloof. Ex-President Taft, for instance, said: "The argument that to enter this covenant is a departure from the time-honored policy of avoiding entangling alliances with Europe is an argument that is blind to the changing circumstances in our present situation. The war itself ended that policy. . . . We were driven into it because, with the dependence of all the world upon our resources of food, raw material, and manufacture; with our closeness, under modern conditions of transportation and communication, to Europe, it was impossible for us to maintain the theory of an isolation that in fact did not exist. It will be equally impossible for us to keep out of another general European war. We are, therefore, just as much interested in stopping such a war as if we were in Europe."

The adoption or rejection of the Treaty of Versailles became an issue in the presidential election of 1920. The Republican party, which was opposed to ratification, was victorious and elected its candidate, Warren G. Harding. On July 2, 1921, President Harding signed the joint resolution of Congress declaring that the war between Germany and the United States was at an end.

III. Continued Distress and Disorder

1189. The Russian Situation. Conflict did not stop with the conclusion of treaties of peace at Versailles or the establishment of the League, for wars often breed more wars.

The country that gave Europe and America the greatest concern after the defeat of the Germans was Russia. Under the leadership of Lenin, the Bolsheviki attempted to carry out a complete social and economic revolution by which the laboring classes should be given control not only of the government but of the land and factories and business in general, to be managed thereafter in the interests of manual laborers (the so-called proletariat). The peasants were authorized to take the estates of the great landowners, and even the land of the richer peasants. Factories, banks, and mines were taken over by the nation to be used for the benefit of the proletariat. The older government was replaced by a system of *soviets,* or councils, elected by groups of workers in the various factories, trades, and occupations, and by the farmers. There were local and provincial soviets and these elected representatives to the all-Russian Congress at Moscow.

1190. Bolshevik Tyranny. Naturally these revolutionary changes aroused bitter opposition. In order to stifle this opposition the Bolsheviki suppressed many forms of freedom and resorted to some of the arbitrary practices with which they had so long been familiar under the despotic rule of the Tsar. Trotzky organized the "Red" army to enforce the "dictatorship of the proletariat." The leaders of the Bolsheviki argued that these harsh measures were only temporary, but were necessary to carry out the Revolution against the opposition of its enemies who sought to restore the old system.

1191. Fears in Western Europe and America. The European governments were horrified by the excesses committed in this forcible overthrow of the existing business system and by the seizure of private property. After the treaty of Brest-Litovsk they became persuaded that the Bolsheviki were pro-German. Their representatives in Russia encouraged the opposition to the "Reds." Czechoslovak regiments that had fled into Russia during the war got control of Siberia, and they were assisted by English, Japanese, and American forces, which landed in Vladivostok to make headway against the Bolsheviki and to try to restore more just and orderly conditions.

The hostility to the Bolsheviki continued after the armistice. Attacked from abroad, threatened with civil war from within and by attempts to assassinate their leaders, the Bolsheviki inaugurated a reign of terror which lasted several months. The threat was made that the Russian socialist revolution would be carried to other countries, and indeed such efforts were made in Germany and Hungary. It was charged that the Bolsheviki did not really represent the Russian people as a whole, and anti-Bolshevik governments were set up in Russia, but all of these were overthrown. The foreign troops, except those of the Japanese in eastern Siberia, were withdrawn, and the Bolsheviki became the masters of Russia.

1192. War between Poland and Russia. A war broke out between Poland and Russia in 1919. The Poles declared that they were merely seeking to recover territory that belonged to them "by historic right." The Bolsheviki accused them of being "capitalist imperialists" bent on seizing Russian land and suppressing "the government of the workingmen and peasants." For about a year the conflict between Russia and Poland raged without a positive decision, but late in 1920 the contestants agreed to an armistice.

1193. The Fiume Affair. In the meantime the world was witnessing another instance of violence, in Fiume on the Adriatic. Both Italy and Jugoslavia claimed this city at the Peace Conference. President Wilson rendered himself highly unpopular with the Italians by opposing the Italian demands. While diplomats discussed, D'Annunzio, the Italian poet at the head of an armed force, seized Fiume. After long disputes the Italian and Jugoslav governments agreed on a compromise in November, 1920, and D'Annunzio was expelled by soldiers from his own country.

1194. Disposal of the Turkish Realms. The treaty with Turkey reduced the ancient empire to the limits of Asia Minor. It was hoped that the old question of Constantinople and the Dardanelles might be settled by creating a "zone of the Straits" governed by an international commission and open freely to the ships of all countries. Smyrna became a Greek mandatory, and

Armenia gained her independence, while certain islands were transferred to Italy. Palestine and Mesopotamia came under British protection and Syria under French administration, while the Arab kingdom of Hejaz, with the holy city of Mecca, long under Turkish rule, was recognized as an independent state.

1195. Disorders in the Near East. The Turkish Nationalists refused to submit to these conditions. They made war on Armenia and forced it to accept a soviet form of government. At the same time the Syrians proclaimed themselves an independent kingdom and resisted French dominion. The result was an armed conflict in which the French were easily victorious. In Mesopotamia likewise the natives were restive, and Great Britain was compelled to maintain a large military force to "help the people of the country to work out their own salvation as a self-governing state." With the collapse of Russian power all of Persia passed into the British sphere of influence (§ 1097). In the spring of 1921 Greece began a war on Turkey with the hope of extending Greek influence in Asia Minor.

1196. Disturbances within the British Empire; Egypt. One of the "points" in President Wilson's famous program of fourteen was the right of each nationality to determine its own destiny. Acting on this principle, representatives of the Egyptian Nationalists appeared at the Peace Conference in Paris and sought to place on record their demand for independence from the British protectorate that had long been imposed on them. While the Peace Conference took no official notice of this demand, the British government in 1920 announced that a project for granting independence to Egypt would be considered. Late in the year Egyptian delegates appeared in London to confer with an English commission on the terms of the new order, but they could not agree on details, so Egypt for the time being remained in the status of a protectorate.

1197. Discontent in India. During the World War Indian princes and troops came to the aid of Great Britain, but at the same time there were strong movements for the independence of India, or at least for self-government. Many Indian agitators

were arrested and imprisoned or shot; mass meetings were broken up or fired upon by British forces. In spite of this disorder the British arranged, in November, 1920, for the first elections under the new law providing for the gradual introduction of self-government into India.

1198. Ireland and the Sinn Fein Republic. A far more serious challenge to British dominion after the close of the World War came from Ireland, where the age-long discontent of the Irish flamed up again in a menacing manner. A revolutionary movement broke out in Ireland, under the leadership of the republicans—Sinn Fein party. Its aim was *complete independence*,—not mere home rule,—and Eamonn de Valera was elected "president of the Irish republic." Thus an Irish government was created within the sphere of the English government. From 1916 to 1921 Ireland was in a state of insurrection. There were murders and retaliations, and the island was filled with distress and disorder.

At last, in December, 1921, representatives of the Irish people met with members of the English government and reached an agreement that Ireland should hereafter be called the "Irish Free State" and should be given a practically independent position "in the Commonwealth of Nations known as the British Empire." That is, it was hereafter to occupy much the same position as Canada, the Australian Federation, and the South African Republic. This was ratified both by the Irish Parliament and the English Parliament early in 1922.

1199. Communist Uprisings. In Germany and Austria the Socialists held the balance of power, and in Russia the Communists wielded their dictatorship. In Berlin, Munich, Vienna, Budapest, and scores of industrial cities there were Communist uprisings. In Munich and Budapest the Communists were in power for a time, but after bloody struggles were deposed. In Berlin there occurred a desperate conflict between the extreme Socialists, known as the Spartacides, and the government, headed by the mild Socialist Ebert. All over Middle Europe the workmen seized factories and set up "workers' councils," somewhat on the model of the Russian soviets. The

net outcome of all this disturbance, accompanied as it was by disastrous and costly fighting, is difficult to measure.

1200. Question of the Rôle of Employees in managing Business. The new German constitution expressly declared that workers and clerical employees were entitled to take part, "with equal rights in coöperation with the employers," in the regulation of wages and labor conditions. The organizations of employers and employees were officially recognized. By a law later enacted in 1920 the German parliament, while not interfering with the regular trade-unions, provided a system of employees' councils in all factories of any size and gave them important powers in the determination of wage and employment policies, including the engaging and discharging of workers.

In the same year Italian workmen in many cities joined in a revolt, seized the plants, and set up workmen's councils. The Italian government, instead of sending soldiers against them, negotiated with them. In a few days they saw how powerless they were, even when in possession of the factories, because they could not control the raw materials, the finances, and the markets necessary to successful business, even if they could have managed the factories themselves. The outcome was a compromise giving the workmen a certain voice in the management of industry.

1201. The English Labor Parties. In England the most important socialistic group, the Labor party, developed a program quite different from that of the Russians or the Italians. Their program holds that the capitalist system has broken down, that it keeps industry in turmoil through constant quarrels over the division of profits, and that, besides being wasteful, it subjects the worker to capitalist control and is out of harmony with the ideals of democracy. The English labor leaders concentrate their fire on the *profit system* as such. They contend that under it the capitalist thinks principally of profits and the operative of wages, but that neither of them is primarily interested in turning out the largest amount of goods of excellent quality. By way of contrast they point to the guildsmen of the Middle Ages, who took a real interest in their work as such and put their

hearts into making first-class articles. They do not believe, however, in violence.

1202. The Third International. Almost from the beginning of the socialist movement in Europe, more than fifty years ago, there was an international organization of workingmen. The

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE PETROGRAD SOVIET

Women as well as men participate in the discussions. Most of the men are in peasant or workingmen's garb. Great power is vested in this committee

"First International," as it was called, was organized by Karl Marx in 1864 and went to pieces shortly after the Franco-Prussian War. On the ruins of this organization the "Second International" was soon founded, which still persists. It was, however, badly broken up by the World War and further weakened by a "Third International," founded by the Bolsheviki at Moscow. The last International, though breathing the spirit of revolution, dictatorship, and violence in every line of its program, was indorsed in 1918–1920 by considerable sections of the labor movement in nearly all European countries except England. Still the number of working people actually represented in the "indorsement" was relatively small.

IV. International Affairs

1203. The Enforcement of the Treaty of Versailles. The onerous terms imposed upon Germany proved hard to enforce. Holland refused to surrender the kaiser for trial, as had been stipulated in the treaty, and all the German authorities were slow in bringing to trial those accused by the Allies of high crimes and misdemeanors in connection with the war. Owing to the disorders in Germany the reduction in the armed forces called for by the treaty met with many obstacles, and France persistently doubted the good faith of the Germans in this respect.

1204. Question of the Amount of the German Indemnity. The most vexatious question of all was that of the "reparations" which the Germans were to make. The total amount had been left indefinite, dependent somewhat upon the ability of Germany to pay, but it was pointed out in many quarters that there could be no real peace until the total sum was finally agreed upon and arrangements were made for payment. The Germans flatly declared that they would not set to work again seriously if all they produced for a long and indefinite period was to be taken from them by the Allies. In the course of time England began to relent, and responsible statesmen there openly agreed that the sum to be paid should be fixed as soon as possible, so that the settlement of the questions left by the war could be closed. In February, 1921, a commission of the Allies fixed the German indemnity at about fifty-six billion dollars, to be paid in installments. The first installment of the bill for reparations was paid in August, 1921, but experts in international finance were doubtful whether Germany could possibly recover sufficiently to meet the terms fixed, and this grave question was by no means settled four years after the close of the war.

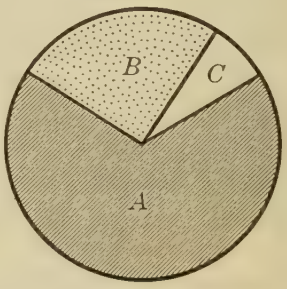
1205. The First Session of the League of Nations Assembly. On November 15, 1920, nearly two hundred and fifty delegates, representing forty-one nations, met at Geneva, Switzerland, for the opening session of the first Assembly held under the League of Nations agreement.

Apart from the interesting discussion of many important international questions, the Assembly accomplished a few positive results. It adopted a project for a permanent international court empowered to arbitrate all disputes threatening war; but the great powers would not agree to submit all their quarrels to the court. Six new states were admitted to the League—Austria, Bulgaria, Finland, Luxemburg, Costa Rica, and Albania. But Argentina withdrew, because she could not agree with the other

A. Obligations arising from past wars, including interest on the public debt, pensions, management of the shipping and railroads during the World War. $3,855,000,000, or about 68% of the whole expense of government

B. For the U. S. Army and Navy and current military expenses. $1,424,000,000, or nearly 25% of the total expenses

C. Cost of conducting the government, public works, education



How Most of our Taxes go for War

members in their plans for compulsory arbitration, the election of members of the Council by the Assembly, and the admission of Germany to the League.

1206. Cost of War for the United States. When in 1921 the expenses of the United States government for the current year were published, the overwhelming cost of war became apparent. It was found that for past wars, including the World War, nearly four billions of dollars were necessary. The preparations for future wars demanded an outlay of not far from a billion and a half dollars. The amount left for all other purposes, such as payment of government officials, public works, and educational and scientific activities, was less than one tenth of the total outlay. Out of every dollar which was paid in taxes more than ninety-three cents had to go in one form or another for war.

1207. The United States necessarily involved in World Affairs. The way in which the United States has inevitably been

drawn into the European wars has become clear as we have reviewed the past. It would seem as if our history must hereafter be bound up with that of the rest of the civilized world. Steamships and the telegraph have made the globe far smaller and the relations of nations much more intimate than formerly. This is illustrated by the apprehension felt by many that what is going on in Russia may encourage the overthrow of our whole business system even in the United States. As a busy, peaceful, and prosperous nation the people of the United States must assume such responsibilities as are necessary to enable them to play a worthy part in promoting harmony, justice, and prosperity throughout the world; for their fate is too intimately connected with the welfare of other countries to permit them to stand aloof.

1208. The Washington Disarmament Conference. The fact that the United States Government refused to join the League of Nations did not prevent hopeful efforts to reduce the expense and danger of armaments. President Harding summoned a conference of representatives of foreign governments to meet in Washington. Delegates assembled to speak for the British Empire, China, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Portugal, as well as for the United States. Deliberations were opened November 12, 1921, with remarkable speeches by President Harding and Charles Hughes, the Secretary of State. Discussions continued for nearly three months and were embodied in treaties and resolutions. The United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan agreed to declare a naval holiday for a period of ten years. During that time they were not to build any warships of any kind and were to maintain a standard of relative strength determined upon by the conference. The so-called four-power treaty pledged the United States, the British Empire, France, and Japan to respect one another's island possessions in the Pacific. Another treaty bound the powers represented at Washington not to interfere in China by seeking special rights and privileges. Moreover, the alliance between Japan and the British, which had been a matter of worry to the government of the United States, was terminated.

QUESTIONS

I. What countries were represented at the Peace Conference in Versailles? How was the treaty with Germany drafted? What problems caused the most difficulty? What were the terms forced on Germany? What were the chief changes made in the map of Europe? Compare the new map of Europe with that of 1914.

II. How is the League of Nations organized? What are mandates? Why did the United States Senate refuse to ratify the treaty? What difference of opinion existed in the United States in regard to the League of Nations?

III. Sketch the situation in Russia after the Bolshevik revolution. Why were the European governments alarmed by the conditions in Russia? What were the chief causes of continued fighting after the close of the World War? What particular problems has Great Britain had to face? Describe the views of the various parties opposed to our present business system.

IV. What were the chief difficulties in carrying out the Treaty of Versailles? Why does such an overwhelming part of our national income have to go for military expenses? In what way do you think that the chances of another war can be reduced? What do you read or see that seems to you to encourage a continuance of wars?

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The textbook and the collateral reading should always be supplemented by examples of contemporaneous material. ROBINSON, *Readings in European History*, Vol. I (from the barbarian invasions to the opening of the sixteenth century) and Vol. II (from the opening of the sixteenth century to the early twentieth century), arranged to accompany chapter by chapter ROBINSON'S *Introduction to the History of Western Europe*, will be found especially useful in furnishing extracts which reënforce the narrative together with extensive bibliographies and topical references.

For extracts relating to the barbarian invasions, see ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, pp. 28–55; OGG, *A Source Book of Mediæval History*, chaps. i–iv. Much

more extensive are the extracts given in HAYES, C. H., *An Introduction to the Sources relating to the Germanic Invasions*, 1909 (Columbia University Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, Vol. XXXIII, No. 3). See also THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*.

Constant use should be made of good historical atlases. By far the best and most convenient for the high school is SHEPHERD, WM. R., *Historical Atlas*, 1911 (see maps 43, 45, 48, 50–52). DOW, EARL E., *Atlas of European History*, 1907, also furnishes clear maps of the chief changes.

An admirable syllabus, guide, and exhaustive bibliography for the study of the Middle Ages may be found in PAETOW, *A Guide to the Study of Mediæval History*, 1917.

Rise of the Papacy ; the Monks. THORNDIKE, *History of Mediæval Europe*, chap. vi, ix–x. FLICK, *The Rise of the Mediæval Church*. WALKER, *The History of the Christian Church*. Church histories are usually written by either Catholics or Protestants, who naturally differ in their interpretation of events. One may refer to FISHER, *History of the Christian Church* (Protestant), or ALZOG, *Manual of Universal Church History* (Catholic). MILMAN, *History of Latin Christianity*. *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. I, chaps. iv, vi. NEWMAN, *Manual of Church History*, Vol. I (Protestant). WORKMAN, *Evolution of the Monastic Ideal*. TAYLOR, HENRY O., *Classical Heritage of the Middle Ages*, admirable chapter on Monasticism. HARNACK, *Monasticism*. *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. II, chap. xvi.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, pp. 14–27, and chaps. iv–v. Much fuller, AYER, J. C., *A Source Book of Ancient Church History* and *Life of St. Columban* in *Translations and Reprints*, University of Pennsylvania, Vol. II, No. 7.

The chief portions of the Benedictine Rule in HENDERSON, E. F., *Select Historical Documents of the Middle Ages*, and in THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*. Translation by BREHAUT of GREGORY OF TOURS, *History of the Franks*. See map, pp. 46–47, in SHEPHERD, *Historical Atlas*, showing spread of Christianity in Europe.

Mohammed and his Followers. For Mohammed and the Saracens, see THATCHER and SCHWILL, *Europe in the Middle Age*, chap. xv. GILMAN, *The Saracens*. GIBBON has a famous chapter on Mohammed and another on the conquests of the Arabs. These are the fiftieth and fifty-first of his great work. *Cambridge Medieval History*, Vol. II, chaps. x–xii. MUIR, *Life of Mohammed*. AMEER ALI, *The Life and Teachings of Mohammed, a Short History of the Saracens*, by one who sympathizes with them. It is not hard to find a copy of one of the English translations of the Koran. See brief extracts in ROBINSON, *Readings*, and in OGG, *Source Book of Mediæval History*, pp. 97 ff. STANLEY LANE-POOLE, *Speeches and Table Talk of Mohammed*, is very interesting.

Charlemagne and the Age of Disorder. EMERTON, *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, chaps. xii–xv. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chaps. xi–xiv.

BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire*, chaps. iv–v. HENDERSON, *History of Germany in the Middle Ages*, chaps. iv–v. OMAN, *Dark Ages*, chaps. xix–xxv. ADAMS, G. B., *Civilization during the Middle Ages*. HODGKIN, *Charles the Great*, a small volume. MOMBERT, *A History of Charles the Great*, the most extensive treatment in English. *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. II, chaps. xviii–xx.

SEIGNOBOS, *Feudal Régime* (excellent). See "Feudalism," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 11th ed. INGRAM, *History of Slavery and Serfdom*, especially chaps. iv–v. CHEYNEY, *Industrial and Social History of England*. MUNRO and SELLERY, *Mediæval Civilization*, pp. 159–212.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chaps. vii–ix. OGG, *Source Book of Mediæval History*, chap. x. THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*, pp. 341–417.

England in the Middle Ages. There are a number of convenient general histories of England during the Middle Ages which can be used to supplement the short account here given: CHEYNEY, *Short History of England*; GREEN, *Short History of the English People*; CROSS, A. L., *A History of England and Greater Britain*, chaps. iv–xviii; ANDREWS, CHARLES M., *History of England*; TERRY, *History of England*; and a number of others. For France, ADAMS, G. B., *Growth of the French Nation*; DURUY, *History of France*; and a more recent treatment by DAVIS, W. S., *The History of France*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chaps. xi, xx. There are several source books of English history: CHEYNEY, *Readings in English History*, chaps. iv–xii; COLBY, *Selections from the Sources of English History*; LEE, *Source Book of English History*; KENDALL, *Source Book of English History*.

Popes and Emperors. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*, chaps. iii–x. HENDERSON, E. F., *History of Germany in the Middle Ages*. THORNDIKE, *History of Mediæval Europe*, chap. xv. DAVIS, H. W. C., *Medieval Europe*, chaps. v–vii. BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire*, chaps. viii–xi.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chaps. xii–xiv. THATCHER and MCNEAL, A *Source Book for Mediæval History*, Section III, pp. 132–259. Excellent maps for the period will be found in SHEPHERD, *Historical Atlas*.

The Crusades. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*, chap. xi. TOUT, *The Empire and the Papacy*, chaps. vii, viii, xiii, xiv, xix. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chap. xvi. DAVIS, *Medieval Europe*, chap. viii. MUNRO and SELLERY, *Mediæval Civilization*, pp. 240–276. ADAMS, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, chap. xi, for general results. ARCHER and KINGSFORD, *The Crusades*. GIBBON, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, chaps. lviii–lix. A. C. KREY, *The First Crusade*. See "Crusades," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 11th ed.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xv. THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*, Section IX, pp. 510–544. *Translations and Reprints*, published by the Department of History of the University of Pennsylvania, Vol. I, Nos. 2, 4, and Vol. III, No. 1.

The Medieval Church; Heresy and the Friars. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*, chap. xvi. The works of Flick and Walker referred to above are useful brief treatments. Special topics can be looked up in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the *Catholic Encyclopædia*, or any other good encyclopedia. CUTTS, *Parish Priests and their People*. LEA, *A History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages*, contains chapters upon the origin of both the Franciscan and Dominican orders. For St. Francis the best work is SABATIER, *St. Francis of Assisi*. See also GASQUET, *English Monastic Life*; JESSOPP, *The Coming of the Friars, and Other Historic Essays*; CREIGHTON, *History of the Papacy*, introductory chapter.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chaps. xvi, xvii, xxi. THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*, contains many important documents relating to the Church.

BOOK V. CIVILIZATION IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Town Life in the Middle Ages. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*, chap. xv. DAVIS, *Medieval Europe*, chap. ix. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chaps. xvii–xix, xxxi–xxxii. HULME, *Renaissance and Reformation*. EMERTON, *The Beginnings of Modern Europe*, chaps. iv–v, ix–x.

GIBBINS, *History of Commerce*, best short account with good maps. CUNNINGHAM, *Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects*, Vol. II. CHEYNEY, *Industrial and Social History of England*. GIBBINS, *Industrial History of England*. DAY, C., *History of Commerce*. LUCHAIRE, *Social Life in the Time of Philip Augustus*. SYMONDS, *Age of Despots*, gives a charming account of town life in Italy in its more picturesque aspects. HAMLIN, *History of Architecture*, good introduction. Good account of early discoveries in *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. I, chaps. i–ii.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chap. xviii. OGG, *A Source Book of Mediæval History*, chap. xx. THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*. Section X, pp. 545–612, gives many interesting documents. Marco Polo's account of his travels is easily had in English. The best edition of *Travels of Sir John Mandeville* is that published by The Macmillan Company.

Medieval Books and Science. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*, chap. xiii. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chaps. xx–xxii. MUNRO and SELLERY, *Mediæval Civilization*, pp. 277–357, 458–490. HULME, *Renaissance and Reformation*. RASHDALL, *History of the Universities in the Middle Ages*, introductory chapters.

The best treatment of medieval intellectual history is TAYLOR, H. O., *The Mediæval Mind* (2 vols). SAINTSBURY, *Flourishing of Romance*, a good introduction to medieval literature. WALSH, *The Thirteenth, the Greatest of Centuries* (rather too enthusiastic in its claims). SMITH, JUSTIN H., *The*

Troubadours at Home. CORNISH, *Chivalry*. DEVINNE, *Invention of Printing*. PUTNAM, *Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages*. BURCKHARDT, *The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy*. VAN DYCK, *The History of Painting*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chap. xix. STEELE, *Mediæval Lore*, extracts from an encyclopedia of the thirteenth century. The *Song of Roland* is translated into spirited English verse by O'Hagan. The reader will find a beautiful example of a French romance of the twelfth century in an English translation of *Aucassin and Nicolette*. Mr. Steele gives charming stories of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries in *Huon of Bordeaux*, *Renaud of Montauban*, and *The Story of Alexander*. MALORY, *Mort d'Arthur*, a collection of the stories of the Round Table made in the fifteenth century for English readers, is the best place to turn for these famous stories. ROBINSON and ROLFE, *Petrarch* (new enlarged edition, 1914), a collection of his most interesting letters. WHITCOMB, *Literary Source Book of the Italian Renaissance*. COULTER, *Mediæval Garner*, a collection of selections from the literary sources.

BOOK VI. THE PROTESTANT REVOLT AND THE WARS OF RELIGION

Europe at the Opening of the Sixteenth Century. HAYES, C. J. H., *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Vol. I, chaps. i, iii (excellent brief account). JOHNSON, *Europe in the Sixteenth Century*, chaps. i–ii. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. I, chaps. iv, xi. See "Charles V," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*. DURUY, *History of France*, Ninth and Tenth Periods.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. II, chap. ii. DYER and HASSALL, *Modern Europe* (a political history of Europe in 6 vols.), Vol. I. CREIGHTON, *History of the Papacy*. PASTOR, *History of the Popes*, Vol. V. BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire*, chap. xiv.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. II, chap. xxiii.

The Protestant Revolt in Germany. HAYES, *Modern Europe*, Vol. I, chap. iv. HENDERSON, E. F., *Short History of Germany*. JOHNSON, *Europe in the Sixteenth Century*, chaps. iii–v. A good recent discussion of the period is contained in HULME, *Renaissance and Reformation*. LINDSAY, *History of the Reformation*, Vol. I. See "Reformation," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 11th ed. MCGIFFERT, *Martin Luther*. BEARD, *Martin Luther*, especially introductory chapters on general conditions. CREIGHTON, *History of the Papacy*, Vol. VI. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. I, chaps. ix, xix, and Vol. II, chaps. iv–viii. JANSSEN, *History of the German People*, Vols. I–II. EMERTON, *Desiderius Erasmus*, very interesting. SMITH, PRESERVED, *The Life and Letters of Martin Luther*. BÖHMER, *Luther in the Light of Recent Research*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chap. xxi, and Vol. II, chaps. xxiv–xxvi. WACE and BUCHHEIM (Editors), *Luther's Primary Works*

and *The Augsburg Confession*. WHITCOMB, *Source Book of the German Renaissance*. HAZLITT, *Luther's Table Talk*. SMITH, PRESERVED, *Luther's Correspondence and Other Contemporary Letters*.

Protestant Revolt in Switzerland and England. JOHNSON, *Europe in the Sixteenth Century*, pp. 272 ff. See "Zwingli" and "Calvin," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Chapters on the changes under Henry VIII and Edward VI will be found in all general histories of England; for example, POLLARD, A. F., *History of England* (Home University Library), chap. iv; CHEYNEY, *Short History of England*, chap. xii; CROSS, *A History of England*, chaps. xx–xxii; GREEN, *Short History of the English People*, chaps. vi–vii.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. II, chaps. x–xi, xiii–xv. JACKSON, S. M., *Huldreich Zwingli*. LINDSAY, *History of the Reformation*, Vol. II, Bk. III, chaps. i–iii, and Bk. IV. GASQUET, *The Eve of the Reformation*. POLLARD, *Henry VIII*; and, by the same, *History of England from the Accession of Edward VI to the Death of Elizabeth*, two admirable works by one of the most stimulating of modern English historians.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxvii. GEE and HARDY, *Documents Illustrative of English Church History*, pp. 145 ff., very useful and full. CHEYNEY, *Readings in English History*, chap. xii.

The Wars of Religion. JOHNSON, *Europe in the Sixteenth Century*, chaps. vii–ix. HAYES, *Modern Europe*, Vol. I, chaps. v–vi (excellent). WAKEMAN, *European History, 1598–1715*, chaps. i–v. L. EINSTEIN, *Tudor Ideals*. The portion of the chapter dealing with English affairs can be supplemented by general histories of England, CHEYNEY, CROSS, GREEN, GARDINER, etc.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. II, chaps. ix, xvi, xviii–xix; Vol. III, chaps. i, vi–x, xv, xx; Vol. IV, chaps. i, iii–vi, xiii–xiv. LINDSAY, *History of the Reformation*, Vol. II, Bk. III, chaps. iv–v, and Bk. VI. PUTNAM, RUTH, *William the Silent*. PAYNE, *Voyages of Elizabethan Seamen to America*, Vol. I. MOTLEY, *Rise of the Dutch Republic*. GINDELY, *History of the Thirty Years' War*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. II, chaps. xxviii, xxix. CHEYNEY, *Readings in English History*, chap. xiii.

BOOK VII. THE SEVENTEENTH AND EARLY EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

England in the Seventeenth Century. POLLARD, *History of England*, chap. v. CHEYNEY, *Short History of England*, chaps. xiv–xvi. HAYES, *Modern Europe*, Vol. I, chap. viii. CROSS, *A History of England*, chaps. xxvii–xxxv. GREEN, *Short History of the English People*, chaps. viii–ix. GARDINER, *Students' History of England*, Pts. VI–VIII. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. III, chap. xvii; Vol. IV, chaps. viii–xi, xv, xix; Vol. V, chaps. v, ix–xi. MORLEY, *Oliver Cromwell*. MACAULAY, *Essay on Milton*. GARDINER, *The First Two Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution*. PEASE, *The Leveller Movement*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxx. CHEYNEY, *Readings in English History*, chaps. xiv–xvi. LEE, *Source Book of English History*, Pt. VI. COLBY, *Selections from the Sources of English History*, Pt. VI, the Stuart Period. GEE and HARDY, *Documents Illustrative of English Church History*, pp. 508–664.

France under Louis XIV. ADAMS, *The Growth of the French Nation*, chaps. xii–xiii. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chaps. i–ii, xiii–xiv. DURUY, *History of France*, Thirteenth Period. WAKEMAN, *The Ascendancy of France, 1598–1715*. HASSALL, *Louis XIV and the Zenith of the French Monarchy* (Heroes of the Nations Series). PERKINS, *France under the Regency* and *France under Louis XV*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. II, chap. xxxi, and ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings in Modern European History*, Vol. I, chaps. i–iii. This fuller collection of source material should be used from this point on. Draw a map of Europe after the Treaty of Utrecht, based on Lesson V in BISHOP and ROBINSON, *Practical Map Exercises in Medieval and Modern European History*.

Central and Eastern Europe. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chaps. xvi, xx–xxi; Vol. VI. HENDERSON, *A Short History of Germany*, Vol. I. RAMBAUD, *History of Russia*, Vols. I–II. TUTTLE, *History of Prussia* (4 vols.). BRIGHT, *Maria Theresa*. CARLYLE, *History of Frederick the Second, called Frederick the Great*, a classic. EVERSLEY, *The Partitions of Poland*. HASSALL, *The Balance of Power, 1715–1789*, full account of diplomacy and wars. KLUCHEVSKY, *A History of Russia* (3 vols.). PHILLIPS, *Poland* (Home University Series). SCHEVILL, *The Making of Modern Germany*, Lectures I–II. SCHUYLER, *Peter the Great*, standard English biography. WALISZEWSKI, *Life of Peter the Great*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxii, and ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings in Modern European History*, chaps. iv–v.

Imperial Rivalry of England and France. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chap. xxii; Vol. VI, chaps. vi, xv. CHEYNEY, *A Short History of England*, chap. xvii. CROSS, *A History of England and Greater Britain*, chap. xli. EGERTON, *A Short History of British Colonial Policy*. GIBBINS, *British Commerce and Colonies from Elizabeth to Victoria*. LYALL, *The Rise of British Dominion in India*. WOODWARD, *A Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire*. CHEYNEY, *The European Background of American History*, an excellent survey. EDGAR, *The Struggle for a Continent*. HUNTER, *A Brief History of the Indian Peoples*. LUCAS, *A Historical Geography of the British Colonies* (5 vols.). MACAULAY, *Essay on Clive*. MAHAN, *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660–1783*. MORRIS, *A History of Colonization* (2 vols.). PARKMAN, *A Half-Century of Conflict* (2 vols.). SEELEY, *The Expansion of England*. THWAITES, *The Colonies*. TRAILL, *Social England*, Vol. V.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxiii, and ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings in Modern European History*, chaps. vi–vii.

The Old Order in Europe. ASHTON, *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*. GIBBINS, *Industry in England*, chaps. xvii–xx. HENDERSON, *A Short History of*

Germany, chaps. iii–vii. LOWELL, *The Eve of the French Revolution*. PROTHERO, *English Farming, Past and Present*, chaps. v–xi, excellent. SYDNEY, *England and the English in the Eighteenth Century* (2 vols.). CUNNINGHAM, *The Growth of English Industry and Commerce, Modern Times*, Pt. I. DE TOCQUEVILLE, *The State of Society in France before the Revolution*, a careful analysis of conditions. LECKY, *A History of England in the Eighteenth Century* (8 vols.). OVERTON, *The English Church in the Eighteenth Century*. TAINE, *The Ancient Régime*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. viii. *Translations and Reprints*, University of Pennsylvania, Vol. V, No. 2; Vol. VI, No. 1. YOUNG, *Travels in France, 1787–1789*, a first-hand source of great importance.

The Spirit of Reform. BURY, *A History of Freedom of Thought* (Home University Series), chap. vi, admirable. *A History of the Idea of Progress*, by the same. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chap. xxiii. DUNNING, *A History of Political Theories from Luther to Montesquieu*, chaps. x–xii. MARVIN, *The Living Past*, chap. viii, a stimulating outline. MCGIFFERT, *Protestant Thought before Kant*, chap. x. MONTESQUIEU, *The Spirit of Laws* (Nugent's translation). ROUSSEAU, *Discourses* and *Émile* and *The Social Contract* (Everyman's Library). SMITH, *The Wealth of Nations*. STEPHENS, *The Life and Writings of Turgot*. CARLYLE, *History of Frederick the Second, called Frederick the Great*. GIDE and RIST, *A History of Economic Doctrines* (translated by Richards). LECKY, *A History of the Rise and Influence of Rationalism in Europe* (2 vols.). MORLEY, *Critical Miscellanies*; *Rousseau*; *Voltaire*, interesting essays. ROBERTSON, *A Short History of Free Thought, Ancient and Modern* (2 vols.).

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, chaps. ix–x.

BOOK VIII. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON

The Old Régime in France. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII, chaps. ii–iv. DE TOCQUEVILLE, *The State of Society in France before the Revolution of 1789*. ROCQUAIN, *The Revolutionary Spirit preceding the Revolution*. TAINE, *The Ancient Régime*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxiv, and ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xi.

The French Revolution. ROBINSON, *The New History*, chap. vii. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII, especially chaps. i–iii. MATTHEWS, *The French Revolution*, Pt. III. ROSE, *The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era*, chaps. i–iii. STEPHENS, *A History of the French Revolution* (2 vols.). AULARD, *The French Revolution: A Political History, 1789–1804* (4 vols.), a good political history. BOURNE, *The Revolutionary Period in Europe*, chaps. vii–x, a recent manual. CARLYLE, *The French Revolution*, a literary masterpiece but written from insufficient materials. TAINE, *The French Revolution* (3 vols.), Vol. I; Vol. II, chaps. i–iv, brilliant but unsympathetic.

BELLOC, *The French Revolution*, chap. iv, sects. iv–vi; chaps. v–vi. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII, especially chap. xii. MATTHEWS, *The French Revolution*, Pt. IV.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chaps. xxxv–xxxvi, and ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. xii–xiii. ANDERSON, *Constitutions and Other Select Documents Illustrative of the History of France, 1789–1907*, a valuable collection for modern French history. BURKE, *Reflections on the French Revolution* (Everyman's Library), a bitter criticism of the whole movement. MORRIS, *Diary and Letters* (2 vols.), contains some vivid description by an American observer. PAINE, *The Rights of Man*, an answer to Burke.

Napoleon and Europe. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII, chaps. xviii–xxv; Vol. IX, chaps. i–iii. FISHER, *Napoleon* (Home University Series), chaps. i–v. FOURNIER, *Napoleon the First*, chaps. i–vii, excellent. JOHNSTON, *Napoleon*, chaps. i–vi, the best brief account in English. ROSE, *The Life of Napoleon the First*, Vol. I, chaps. i–xi, the most scholarly account in English. ANDERSON, *Constitutions and Other Select Documents Illustrative of the History of France, 1789–1907*. BINGHAM, *A Selection from the Letters and Despatches of the First Napoleon* (3 vols.). LAS CASES, *The Journal of the Emperor Napoleon at St. Helena*. LECESTRE, *New Letters of Napoleon I*. DE RÉMUSAT, *Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat*. MIOT DE MELITO, *Memoirs of Miot de Melito*. BIGELOW, *A History of the German Struggle for Liberty*. SEELEY, *The Life and Times of Stein*, a study of Prussia under Stein. SLOANE, *Life of Napoleon Bonaparte*, Vols. III–IV. TAINE, *The Modern Régime* (2 vols.), keen analysis of Napoleon.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxviii, and ROBINSON and BEARD, chaps. xiv–xv.

BOOK IX. WESTERN EUROPE 1814–1914

Europe after the Congress of Vienna. There are several works on the political history of Europe after the settlement at Vienna in addition to those of HAYES and SCHAPIRO referred to at the end of each chapter: ANDREWS, *The Historical Development of Modern Europe* (2 vols.); FYFFE, *History of Modern Europe* (in a single volume and a three-volume edition); HAZEN, *Europe since 1815*; PHILLIPS, *Modern Europe, 1815–1899*; and SEIGNOBOS, *A Political History of Europe since 1814* (translation of a French work). For the plans of the Tsar, Alexander I, and the European congresses, see PHILLIPS, *The Confederation of Europe*. Special treatments: HUME, *Modern Spain*; STILLMAN, *The Union of Italy*; SYBEL, *The Founding of the German Empire*, Vol. I.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxix, and ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. xvi and (Vol. II) xvii.

The Industrial Revolution. ALLSOPP, *An Introduction to English Industrial History*, Pt. IV, excellent book for young students. CHEYNEY, *An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England*. GIBBINS, *Industry in England*,

chaps. xx–xxi. MARVIN, *The Living Past*, chaps. ix–x. POLLARD, *The History of England* (Home University Series), chap. vii. SLATER, *The Making of Modern England* (American edition), especially the introduction, excellent. BYRN, *The Progress of Invention in the Nineteenth Century*. COCHRANE, *Modern Industrial Progress*. CUNNINGHAM, *The Growth of English Industry and Commerce: Modern Times*, Pt. II. HOBSON, *The Evolution of Modern Capitalism*, excellent. KIRKUP, *A History of Socialism*, well written and fair. SPARGO and ARNER, *The Elements of Socialism*. WOOLMAN and MCGOWAN, *Textiles*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xviii.

Revolutionary Europe — Italian and German Unity. In addition to the general histories cited above, there are the following special volumes: *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XI. MAURICE, *Revolutionary Movement of 1848–1849*. BARRY, *The Papacy and Modern Times* (Home University Series). GARIBALDI, *Autobiography*. MAZZINI, *Duties of Man* (Everyman's Library). CESARESCO, *Cavour and the Liberation of Italy*. KING, *A History of Italian Unity* (2 vols.). STILLMAN, *The Union of Italy*. BISMARCK, *Bismarck, the Man and the Statesman*, an autobiography. BUSCH, *Bismarck, Some Secret Pages of his History*. HEADLAM, *Bismarck and the Foundation of the German Empire*. SCHEVILL, *The Making of Modern Germany*, Lectures I–V, very enthusiastic. SMITH, *Bismarck and German Unity*. TREITSCHKE, *History of Germany in the Nineteenth Century*; and *Politics* (2 vols.). GUILLAND, *Modern Germany and her Historians*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. xix–xxii.

Germany. BARKER, *Modern Germany*. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XII, chap. vi. HAZEN, *Europe since 1815*, chap. xiv. HENDERSON, *A Short History of Germany* (1916 edition), chaps. xi–xiii. HOWE, *Socialized Germany*. KRÜGER, *Government and Politics of the German Empire*, excellent. MACY and GANNAWAY, *Comparative Free Government*, Pt. II, chap. li. OGG, *The Governments of Europe*, chaps. ix–xiv. DODD, *Modern Constitutions*. DAWSON, *The Evolution of Modern Germany*. DEWEY, *German Philosophy and Politics*. HOWARD, *The German Empire*, chaps. i–xiii. TOWER, *Germany To-day* (Home University Series).

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xxiii.

France. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XII, chap. v. HAZEN, *Europe since 1815*, chap. xv. MACY and GANNAWAY, *Comparative Free Government*, Pt. II, chaps. xlvi–xlix. OGG, *The Governments of Europe*, Pt. III, best brief analysis. BODLEY, *France*, by an English Conservative. BRACQ, *France under the Republic*. COUBERTIN, *The Evolution of France under the Third Republic*. HANOTAUX, *Contemporary France* (3 vols.). LOWELL, *Governments and Parties in Continental Europe* (2 vols.). VIZETELLY, *Republican France*. The constitution of France is to be found in DODD, *Modern Constitutions*.

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Marked letters sound as in sāle, senāte, ăm, făr, àsk, ạccount, ēve, ẻvent, lĕnd, thêre, hėr, patẹnt, īce, ĭnk, ōld, ǒbey, ŏn, côrn, möve, cọnnect, ūse, ŭnite, rŭn, fûll; *French* üne; zh *like* s *in* measure; ĸ *like German* ch *in* ich, ach; ṅ *running into the preceding vowel as in French* boṅ

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